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NAH

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW;

OR

LITERARY JOURNAL,

ENLARGED:

From SEPTEMBER to DECEMBER, *inclusive.*

M,DCCC,XV.

With an APPENDIX.

"Let it be remembered, that the efficacy of Ignorance has long been tried, and has not produced the consequence expected. Let Knowlege, therefore, take its turn; and let the patrons of privation stand awhile aside, and admit the operation of positive principles." JOHNSON.

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ERRATA in Vol. LXXVIII.

Page 44. l. 15. from bott. omit the inadvertent repetition of the remark on Psalm cxxxvii., which was noticed in the preceding page.
52. l. 15. for 'person,' r. *student*.
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218. l. 31. for 'attentions,' r. *attention*.
231. l. 10. for 'half,' r. *bath*.
289. l. 2. from bott. for φίρεσθαι, r. φίρεσθαι.
291. l. 2. of *note*, for 'caused pain,' r. *curled hair*.
362. l. 11. from bott. for 'πώρας, r. ἀπώρας.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1815.

ART. I. *Travels to the Source of the Missouri River*, by Captains Lewis and Clarke.

[*Art. concluded from p.* 350. *Rev. for August.*]

OUR last article on the subject of this expedition terminated with an account of the travellers having taken up their quarters for the winter in an encampment near the shore of the Pacific, and at a short distance from the mouth of the Columbia. During the three months passed here, (from December to March,) though exempt from that severity of cold which prevails in the interior of America, they were exposed to incessant deluges of rain, and experienced great difficulty in killing enough of game for their subsistence. The consequences were, as we have already noticed, a tendency to sickness among the men, and a determination, on the part of the commanders, to quit the encampment without waiting for the arrival of any of the European or other traders who visit the coast towards the beginning of summer. Captains Lewis and Clarke were in hopes that the health of the party would be benefited by exercise and a return to dry air, and they had every reason to think that provision would be more abundant in the interior. These considerations seemed of sufficient weight to determine their departure from the camp, although they were aware that they must submit to delay before they could cross the Rocky mountains, that dreary region being covered with ice and snow till June or July.

On the 23d of March 1806 their canoes were loaded, and they took a final leave of their encampment; depositing in the hands of the Indian chiefs a paper specifying the dates of the arrival and departure of the expedition. The course homeward was, during the first month, by water, the canoes being dragged or carried over land in places where the current of the Columbia was too strong to be navigated. On these occasions, the travellers were exposed to much annoyance from the pilfering habits of some of the Indian tribes; and their provisions were so scanty that they were obliged to feed on dogs' flesh, a diet at

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By this time, the party found their stock of merchandise reduced so low that they were obliged to cut off the buttons from their clothes, and to present them, with phials and small tin-boxes, as articles of barter with the Indians; and with these humble commodities, they found means to procure some roots and bread as provision during the passage of the Rocky mountains. Towards the middle of June, the fall of the rivers shewed that the great body of snow on the mountains was at last melted, and they ventured to leave their encampment, against the advice of several of the Indians: but they soon found that they had been premature, the winter presenting itself on the high grounds in all its rigour, and not a vestige of vegetation being discernible. The snow which covered the whole country, though sufficiently hard to bear their horses, rendered invisible every trace of the path, and put it out of the power of these animals to find either grass or under-wood for their support. It was still of the depth of ten or twelve feet; so that a farther prosecution of their attempt was wholly unadvisable; and the travellers, after having deposited in this upper region their baggage and such provisions as they could spare, reluctantly determined to trace back their steps to the plain. There they remained ten days, and on the 26th of June began again to ascend the lofty ridge, the snow on which had in the interval melted nearly four feet, leaving still a depth of six or seven. They found their deposit perfectly untouched, placed it on the backs of the horses, and followed the steps of their guides, sometimes crossing abrupt hills, and at other times winding along their sides near tremendous precipices. The whole country was covered with snow, except a few spots on which they contrived to encamp, and to procure a slender support for their horses. On the next day, they reached an eminence on which Indian travellers are accustomed to halt:

'From this elevated spot we have a commanding view of the surrounding mountains, which so completely enclose us, that although we have once passed them, we should almost despair of ever escaping from them without the assistance of the Indians. The marks on the trees, which had been our chief dependence, are much fewer and more difficult to be distinguished than we had supposed; but our guides traverse this trackless region with a kind of instinctive sagacity; they never hesitate, they are never embarrassed; yet so undeviating is their step, that wherever the snow has disappeared, for even a hundred paces, we find the summer-road. With their aid the snow is scarcely a disadvantage, for although we are often obliged to slip down, yet the fallen timber and the rocks, which are now covered, were much more troublesome when we passed in the autumn.'

Three days more brought the party to Traveller's Rest-creek, the central point mentioned in their former journey. Here the

Captains Lewis and Clarke agreed to separate, for the purpose of taking a more comprehensive survey in the journey home. It was highly desirable to acquire a farther knowlege of the Roche Jaune or Yellow-stone, a large river which flows above a thousand miles from the south-west before it reaches the Missouri; and it was of some consequence to know more accurately the course of Maria's river, the stream which at its junction with the Missouri had so strongly excited their doubts as to which of them was the true river. The road across the mountains, when pursued without much turning to the right or the left, is about two hundred and fifty miles in its whole extent, over two-thirds of which they had by this time travelled. The snow was now giving way before the warmth of the season, and game was less scanty in the valleys.

Captain Lewis's journey in a north-east direction.—The separation took place on the third of July; and Capt. Lewis, holding an eastern course, crossed a large river flowing towards the Columbia, which had already been called by the party Clarke's river, after Capt. Clarke. It is remarkable that, throughout more than three-fourths of the mountainous region, the course of the waters is to the west, the dividing ridge between the supplies of the Columbia and of the Missouri running at no great distance from the course of the latter river. On the 8th of July, Capt. Lewis had the satisfaction of once more reaching a stream running towards the Missouri, to which he gave the name of Dearborn's river; and he soon afterward came to Medicine river, a larger water flowing in the same direction. They now resumed their old station near the Falls of the Missouri, and soon found that they had still to contend for its possession with their former antagonists:

'At night M'Neal, who had been sent in the morning to examine the cache at the lower end of the portage, returned: but had been prevented from reaching that place by a singular adventure. Just as he arrived near Willow run, he approached a thicket of brush, in which was a white bear, which he did not discover till he was within ten feet of him: his horse started, and wheeling suddenly round, threw M'Neal almost immediately under the bear; he started up instantly, and finding the bear raising himself on his hind feet to attack him, struck him on the head with the butt end of his musket; the blow was so violent that it broke the breech of the musket and knocked the bear to the ground, and before he recovered, M'Neal seeing a willow tree close by, sprang up, and there remained while the bear closely guarded the foot of the tree until late in the afternoon. He then went off, and M'Neal being released came down, and having found his horse, which had strayed off to the distance of two miles, returned to camp. These animals are, indeed, of a most extraordinary ferocity, and it is matter of wonder, that in all our encounters we have had the good fortune to escape.'

Having visited the Falls, and enjoyed once more the delight afforded by that sublime spectacle, Capt. Lewis and his men proceeded in a north-west direction; and, on the evening of the 17th of July, they arrived at the bank of Tansy river.

'As we approached this river, we saw the fresh track of a bleeding buffaloe, a circumstance by no means pleasant, as it indicated the Indians had been hunting, and were not far from us. The tribes who principally frequent this country, are the Minnetarees of Fort de Prairie, and the Blackfoot Indians, both of whom are vicious and profligate rovers, and we have therefore every thing to fear, not only from their stealing our horses, but even our arms and baggage, if they are sufficiently strong. In order therefore to avoid, if possible, an interview with them, we hurried across the river to a thick wood, and having turned out the horses to graze, Drewyer went in quest of the buffaloe to kill it, and ascertain whether the wound was given by the Indians, while the rest reconnoitred the whole country. In about three hours they all returned without having seen the buffaloe or any Indians in the plains. We then dined, and two of the party resumed their search, but could see no signs of Indians, and we therefore slept in safety.'

When they had crossed this stream, they came (next day) to the banks of Maria's river, the object of their search, and continued for several days their route along its northern side. They were surprized to find that its volume of water increased as they ascended, instead of diminishing; a circumstance owing doubtless to evaporation, and still more to the absorption of the water in its passage through the plains. They had by this time discovered that the part at which this river issued from the mountains was to the west, and not to the north, of the spot which they had reached; and this having been one of their principal objects, they delayed no time in setting out on the journey down the river, that they might not run the hazard of losing the opportunity of returning home before the winter. They had soon reason to know that their apprehensions with regard to the Indians were not unfounded, the following adventure taking place at a time when Capt. L. and his companions were only four in number:

'At the distance of three miles we ascended the hills close to the river side, while Drewyer pursued the valley of the river on the opposite side. But scarcely had Captain Lewis reached the high plain, when he saw, about a mile on his left, a collection of about thirty horses. He immediately halted, and by the aid of his spy-glass, discovered that one half of the horses were saddled, and that on the eminence above the horses, several Indians were looking down towards the river, probably at Drewyer. This was a most unwelcome sight. Their probable numbers rendered any contest with them of doubtful issue; to attempt to escape would only invite pursuit, and our

horses were so bad that we must certainly be overtaken; besid which, Drewyer could not yet be aware that the Indians were near and if we ran he would most probably be sacrificed. We therefore determined to make the best of our situation, and advance towards them in a friendly manner. The flag which we had brought in case of any such accident was therefore displayed, and we continued slowly our march towards them. Their whole attention was so engaged by Drewyer, that they did not immediately discover us. As soon as they did see us, they appeared to be much alarmed and ran about in confusion, and some of them came down the hill and drove their horses within gun-shot of the eminence, to which they then returned, as if to wait our arrival. When we came within a quarter of a mile, one of the Indians mounted and rode at full speed to receive us; but when within a hundred paces of us he halted, and Captain Lewis, who had alighted to receive him, held out his hand, and beckoned to him to approach; he only looked at us for some time, and then, without saying a word, returned to his companions with as much haste as he had advanced. The whole party now descended the hill and rode towards us. As yet we saw only eight, but presumed that there must be more behind us, as there were several horses saddled. We however advanced, and Captain Lewis now told his two men that he believed these were the Minnetarees of Fort de Prairie, who, from their infamous character, would in all probability attempt to rob them; but being determined to die, rather than lose his papers and instruments, he intended to resist to the last extremity, and advised them to do the same, and to be on the alert should there be any disposition to attack us. When the two parties came within a hundred yards of each other, all the Indians, except one, halted; Captain Lewis therefore ordered his two men to halt while he advanced, and after shaking hands with the Indian, went on and did the same with the others in the rear, while the Indian himself shook hands with the two men. They all now came up, and after alighting, the Indians asked to smoke with us. Captain Lewis, who was very anxious for Drewyer's safety, told them the man who had gone down the river had the pipe, and requested that as they had seen him, one of them would accompany R. Fields to bring him back. To this they assented, and Fields went with a young man in search of Drewyer. Captain Lewis now asked them by signs if they were the Minnetarees of the north, and was sorry to learn by their answer that his suspicion was too true. He then inquired if there was any chief among them. They pointed out three; but though he did not believe them, yet it was thought best to please them, and he therefore gave to one a flag, to another a medal, and to a third a handkerchief. They appeared to be well satisfied with these presents, and now recovered from the agitation into which our first interview had thrown them, for they were really more alarmed than ourselves at the meeting. In our turn, however, we became equally satisfied on finding that they were not joined by any more of their companions, for we consider ourselves quite a match for eight Indians, particularly as these have but two guns, the rest being armed with only eye-dogs and bows and arrows. As it was growing late Captain Lewis proposed that they should encamp

camp together near the river; for he was glad to see them and had a great deal to say to them. They assented; and being soon joined by Drewyer, we proceeded towards the river, and after descending a very steep bluff, two hundred and fifty feet high, encamped in a small bottom. Here the Indians formed a large semicircular tent of dressed buffaloe skins, in which the two parties assembled, and by the means of Drewyer, the evening was spent in conversation with the Indians. They informed us that they were a part of a large band which at present lay encamped on the main branch of Maria's river, near the foot of the Rocky mountains, and at the distance of a day and a half's journey from this place. — Finding them very fond of the pipe, Captain Lewis, who was desirous of keeping a constant watch during the night, smoked with them until a late hour, and as soon as they were all asleep, he woke R. Fields, and ordering him to rouse us all in case any Indian left the camp, as they would probably attempt to steal our horses, he lay down by the side of Drewyer in the tent with all the Indians, while the Fields were stretched near the fire at the mouth of it. At sunrise,

'Sunday, 27. the Indians got up and crowded round the fire, near which J. Fields, who was then on watch, had carelessly left his rifle, near the head of his brother, who was still asleep. One of the Indians slipped behind him, and unperceived, took his brother's and his own rifle, while at the same time, two others seized those of Drewyer and Captain Lewis. As soon as Fields turned round, he saw the Indian running off with the rifles, and instantly calling his brother, they pursued him for fifty or sixty yards, and just as they overtook him, in the scuffle for the rifles, R. Fields stabbed him through the heart with his knife; the Indian ran about fifteen steps and fell dead. They now ran back with their rifles to the camp. The moment the fellow touched his gun, Drewyer, who was awake, jumped up and wrested it from him. The noise awoke Captain Lewis, who instantly started from the ground, and reached to seize his gun, but finding it gone, drew a pistol from his belt, and turning about, saw the Indian running off with it. He followed him, and ordered him to lay it down, which he was doing just as the Fields came up, and were taking aim to shoot him, when Captain Lewis ordered them not to fire, as the Indian did not appear to intend any mischief. He dropped the gun, and was going off slowly, as Drewyer came out, and asked permission to kill him, but this Captain Lewis forbad, as he had not yet attempted to shoot us. But finding that the Indians were now endeavouring to drive off all the horses, he ordered three of them to follow the main party who were chasing the horses up the river, and fire instantly upon the thieves; while he, without taking time to run for his shot-pouch, pursued the fellow who had stolen his gun and another Indian, who were driving away the horses on the left of the camp. He pressed them so closely, that they left twelve of their horses, but continued to drive off one of our own. At the distance of three hundred paces they entered a steep niche in the river bluffs, when Captain Lewis, being too much out of breath to pursue them any further, called out, as he did several times before, that unless they gave up the horse he would shoot them. As he raised his

his gun, one of the Indians jumped behind a rock and spoke to the other, who stopped at the distance of thirty paces, as Captain Lewis shot him in the belly. He fell on his knees and right elbow, but raising himself a little, fired, and then crawled behind a rock. The shot had nearly been fatal, for Captain Lewis, who was bare-headed, felt the wind of the ball very distinctly. Not having a shot-pouch, he could not reload his rifle, and having only a single load also for his pistol, he thought it most prudent not to attack the Indians, and therefore retired slowly to the camp.—As there was no time to be lost, we mounted our horses, and after ascending the river hills, took our course through the beautiful level plains in a direction a little to the south of east. We had no doubt but that we should be immediately pursued by a much larger party, and that as soon as intelligence was given to the band near the Broken mountains, they would hasten to the mouth of Maria's river to intercept us. We hope, however, to be there before them, so as to form a junction with our friends. We therefore pushed our horses as fast as we possibly could; and fortunately for us, the Indian horses were very good, the plains perfectly level, and without many stones or prickly pears, and in fine order for travelling after the late rains. At eight miles from our camp we passed a stream forty yards wide, to which, from the occurrence of the morning, we gave the name of Battle river. At three o'clock we reached Rose river, five miles above where we had formerly passed it, and having now come by estimate sixty-three miles, halted for an hour and a half to refresh our horses; then pursued our journey seventeen miles further, when, as the night came on, we killed a buffaloe, and again stopped for two hours. The sky was now overclouded, but as the moon gave light enough to show us the route, we continued along through immense herds of buffaloes for twenty miles, and then, almost exhausted with fatigue, halted at two in the morning,

'Monday, 28. to rest ourselves and the horses. At day-light we awoke sore and scarcely able to stand; but as our own lives, as well as those of our companions, depended on our pressing forward, we mounted our horses and set out. The men were desirous of crossing the Missouri at the Grog spring, where Rose river approaches so near the river, and passing down the south-west side of it, and thus avoid the country at the junction of the two rivers, through which the enemy would most probably pursue us. But as this circuitous route would consume the whole day, and the Indians might in the mean time attack the canoes at the point, Captain Lewis told his party it was now their duty to risk their lives for their friends and companions; that he would proceed immediately to the point, to give the alarm to the canoes, and if they had not yet arrived, he would raft the Missouri, and after hiding the baggage, ascend the river on foot through the woods till he met them. He told them also, that it was his determination, in case they were attacked in crossing the plains, to tie the bridles of the horses, and stand together till they had either routed their enemies, or sold their lives as dearly as possible. To this they all assented, and we therefore continued our route to the eastward, till at the distance of twelve miles

we

we came near the Missouri, when we heard a noise which seemed like the report of a gun. We therefore quickened our pace for eight miles further, and about five miles from the Grog spring we now heard distinctly the noise of several rifles from the river. We hurried to the bank, and saw with exquisite satisfaction our friends coming down the river. — By a singular good fortune, we were here joined by Serjeant Gass and Willard from the Falls, who had been ordered to bring the horses here to assist in collecting meat for the voyage, as it had been calculated that the canoes would reach this place much sooner than Captain Lewis's party.'

The whole of Capt. Lewis's detachment, being thus happily collected and embarked, proceeded forthwith down the Missouri; and they found that, with the aid of the oars and the current, their progress was rapid, being at the rate frequently of between sixty and eighty miles in a day. By the seventh of August they had proceeded as far as the mouth of the Yellow-stone, the place appointed for a rendezvous with Capt. Clarke; and they were informed by a note stuck on a pole, that he had accomplished his voyage down that river, and would wait for them lower down the Missouri. — We shall now give a brief account of

Captain Clarke's journey and passage down the Yellow-stone. — On quitting the central encampment at Traveller's Rest-creek, Capt. Clarke marched in a southern direction, and traversed a distance of 164 miles to the head of Jefferson's river. This journey was performed on horseback, in six days, over a country by no means difficult; so that, in future, the passage of this elevated region will be divested of a portion of its terrors. Another agreeable discovery was that the communication between the Upper Missouri and the Yellow-stone was attended with little trouble; Gallatin's river, one of the tributary waters of the Missouri, approaching at one place within eighteen miles of the Yellow-stone, where the latter has already become completely navigable, being a bold and deep stream above a hundred yards in width. Capt. Clarke, however, found it necessary to proceed on horseback about a hundred miles down the side of the river, being unable sooner to find wood fit for canoes. Having at last succeeded in this object, the party advanced on the 24th of July once more by water, and sailed down the stream with as much rapidity as Capt. Lewis was at the same time sailing down the Missouri. On the 27th, being at a distance of two hundred miles from the Rocky mountains, they took a last view of that elevated region, some part of which had been in their sight from the beginning of May, notwithstanding the great extent of ground which they had traversed. The Yellow-stone being of easy navigation, Capt. Clarke reached the point of rendezvous rather earlier than he expected. On embarking

embarking in the canoes, he had intrusted the horses belonging to the party to the care of a serjeant and three men, but the Indians in the neighbourhood soon found them out, and contrived to steal all the horses in one night. The men, thus left without the means of travelling by land, determined on making two skin-canoes, such as are used by some tribes of Indians:

'They are made in the following manner:—Two sticks of an inch and a quarter in diameter are tied together so as to form a round hoop, which serves for the brim, while a second hoop, for the bottom of the boat, is made in the same way, and both secured by sticks of the same size from the sides of the hoops, fastened by thongs at the edges of the hoops, and at the interstices of the sticks: over this frame the skin is drawn closely and tied with thongs, so as to form a perfect basin, seven feet and three inches in diameter, sixteen inches deep, and with sixteen ribs or cross-sticks, and capable of carrying six or eight men with their loads. Being unacquainted with the river, they thought it most prudent to divide their guns and ammunition, so that in case of accident all might not be lost, and therefore built two canoes. In these frail vessels they embarked, and were surprised at the perfect security in which they passed through the most difficult shoals and rapids of the river, without ever taking in water, even during the highest winds.'—

'During its whole course from the point at which Captain Clarke reached it to the Missouri, a distance which he computed at eight hundred and thirty-seven miles, the Yellow-stone is large and navigable for perioques, and even batteaux, there being none of the moving sand-bars which impede the navigation of the Missouri, and only a single ledge of rocks, which, however, is not difficult to pass. Even its tributary waters, the Bighorn, Clarke's fork, and Tongue river, may be ascended in boats for a considerable distance. The banks of the river are low, but bold, and no where subject to be overflowed, except for a short distance below the mountains. The predominating colour of the river is a yellowish-brown; that of the Missouri, which possesses more mud, is of a deep drab colour; the bed of the former being chiefly composed of loose pebble; which, however, diminish in size in descending the river, till, after passing the Lazeka, the pebble cease as the river widens, and the mud and sand continue to form the greater part of the bottom. Over these the water flows with a velocity constantly and almost equally decreasing in proportion to its distance from the mountains. From the mountains to Clarke's fork, the current may be estimated at four and a half miles per hour; thence as low as the Bighorn, at three and a half miles; between that and the Lazeka at three miles; and from that river to the Wolf rapid, at two and three quarter miles; from which to its entrance, the general rapidity is two miles per hour.—Like all the branches of the Missouri which penetrate the Rocky mountains, the Yellow-stone and its streams, within that district of country beyond Clarke's fork, abound in beaver and otter; a circumstance which strongly recommends the entrance of the latter river as a judicious position for the purposes of trade.'

Passage

Passage down the Missouri. — The whole party, being united below the conflux of the Missouri and the Yellow-stone, prosecuted the remainder of their voyage together; experiencing in the prospect of home, and in the ease with which they descended the river, a compensation for all their fatigues; and receiving the visits of the different tribes of Indians along the banks, the Mandans, the Ricaras, and even the faithless Tetons. The greatest change experienced by the travellers in their southward progress was that of climate. They had passed nearly two years in a cool, open country, and were now descending into wooded plains, eight or ten degrees farther to the south, but differing in point of heat much more than the case usually is in a correspondent distance in Europe. They were likewise greatly tormented with musquitoes. — Notwithstanding all the tributary streams received by the Missouri, such is the power of evaporation that its channel becomes very little wider, or its volume of water very little larger, for the space of the thousand miles which intervene between the junction of the Yellow-stone and the copious waters of the Platte. — After having passed the mouth of the latter, they met, from time to time, traders on their way to the interior of the Indian territories; and they were amused on finding one of their own men forego the gratification of returning to his country and his friends, in order to set out with some beaver-hunters on an excursion in which years might be passed in those wilds from which he had just escaped. The feelings of the rest of the party, however, were very different; and a general shout was raised when their eyes caught the first sign of civilization and domestic life, in the cowsfeeding on a frontier-plantation. On landing at La Charrette, the first village on this side of the United States, they were received with open arms by the inhabitants, who had long abandoned all hopes of their return. September 22. they found a detachment of American troops cantoned near the mouth of the Missouri, and passed the day in cordial intercourse with their countrymen. On the 23d they descended the Mississippi to St. Louis, which they reached at noon, where they received a most hospitable welcome; having thus completed a journey of nearly nine thousand miles.

We shall now recapitulate the principal dates in the narrative.

The expedition set out from the mouth of the Missouri,	14th May 1804.
Took up winter quarters among the Mandan Indians - - -	1st Nov.
Resumed their voyage up the Missouri	7th April 1805.
Reached the last navigable point of the Missouri - - -	18th Aug.

Reached

Reached the Pacific at the mouth of the Columbia - - -	15th Nov.
Set out on the homeward journey -	27th March 1806.
Reached Traveller's Rest-creek in the midst of the Rocky mountains -	1st July
Returned to St. Louis at the mouth of the Missouri - - -	23d Sept. 1806.

We have thus brought our report of these very interesting travels to an end, and shall close the article with a few general observations. The task of preparing the journal for press devolved, we understand, chiefly on Capt. Clarke; his lamented associate, Capt. Lewis, having paid the debt of nature before the MS. was brought into a finished state. The composition is plain and unaffected; evidently the work of men anxiously bent on the attainment of the objects of the expedition, without any latent wish to gain favour with the public by dwelling on their personal hardships, or taking credit for any unusual share of fortitude or discernment. No where do they represent themselves as required to stimulate, by any extraordinary effort, the exertions of their followers; on the contrary, every man of the party is represented as obedient, assiduous, and zealous for the complete discharge of his duty. On rising from the perusal of such a narrative, a benevolent reader must feel gratified that the unhappy contest with a state, in no respect our natural enemy, is now at a close; and that both nations are at liberty to prosecute their discoveries and commercial enterprizes in security from hostile alarms. We have already mentioned a journal of these travels kept by Patrick Gass, one of the serjeants, which was published some years ago. (See M. R., Vol. lxiii., No. for Nov. 1810.) This narrative was comparatively short, being comprized in an octavo volume; as was also another abridged work, intitled the "Travels of Captains Lewis and Clarke, with Delineations of the Manners of the Indians," London, 1809. We reserved our report of the expedition until we should have before us the full and authentic narrative, in the publication of which a considerable delay took place. It results from the observations of Capts. Lewis and Clarke, that no part of the immense tract of country visited by them is devoid of population; and that considerable difference prevails in the habits of the several tribes, or nations as they are called, of Indians, some being honest and hospitable, while others are selfish and addicted to theft. The majority, we fear, come under the latter description; so that it is incumbent on travellers to be steadily on their guard, even in situations of apparent security. The climate, particularly towards the interior, appears to be healthy; the party having expe-

experienced no other illness than that which naturally arose from bad diet, and exposure to rain at night. The grand feature of discovery, however, in the present narrative, is the extensive and accurate information obtained with regard to the navigation of the leading rivers. Not only is the Missouri now traced to its source, but another and apparently preferable channel of access to the centre of the Continent is found in the waters of the Yellow-stone. The Columbia and a considerable part of Lewis's river have been explored, and the way paved for discovering an additional conveyance by water to the Columbia, either by Clarke's river on the north, or the upper part of Lewis's river on the south. The want of timber for building canoes is an inconvenience of no very difficult remedy; and farther facilities will, in time, be found out by improving the roads or tracks, as well as by laying up stores of provision in situations in which the country does not, in its present state, afford them. Among the surveys remaining to be made by subsequent explorers, we may reckon the upper part of the Columbia in its course from north to south, and the copious stream of the Multnomah, which flows into the mouth of the Columbia from the south-east. The great rivers that fall into the Missouri are the Osage, the Kanzas, and the Platte; the first of these was surveyed by Mr. Pike, but of the two others no satisfactory account is yet before the public. We shall return with pleasure to the task of rendering a report of any authenticated survey of Louisiana, whether it relate to the Platte, the Kanzas, or to the Red river; which, we understand, has lately engaged the attention of the American government.

The present volume contains a map of the country passed by the travellers, with a few engravings on a small scale; viz. the antient fortification on the Missouri, p. 47.; the Falls of that river, p. 191.; and the Columbia Falls, pp. 47. and 379.

ART. II. *Quarrels of Authors;* or, some Memoirs for our Literary History, including Specimens of Controversy to the Reign of Elizabeth. By the Author of "Calamities of Authors." Crown 8vo. 3 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Murray. 1814.

"QUARRELS," says the Dictionary of the French Academy, "begin by words, and end often with blows:" — they pass from complaint to invective, and from invective to personal violence. There is something graceless, unbecoming, rude, and barbarous, in a quarrel; and literary men should not lightly be accused of the propensity. Could no milder name be found for that argumentative opposition, that disputatious rivalry,

rivalry, that polemic declamation, that sentimental jarring, that oratorical conflict, that dialogue with the pen, that literary wrestling, which is one of the noblest games of mind, which nations may contemplate with honour, and at which champions excel with celebrity? The controvertist should have truth for his aim, and the arts of eloquence for his means: but he deserves the epithet *quarrelsome* only when he forgets the purpose of the discussion for the sake of plaguing his adversary.

Of several competitory investigations in which our learned men have been engaged, an entertaining history is given in the present volumes, under the odious, perverse, insulting name of Quarrels. Mr. D'Israeli is a smart and lively writer, extensively familiar with the minor chronicles of literature, and adapted to communicate the interest which he takes in the subordinate feuds and private anecdotes of its heroes. His style, as we have before observed, has vivacity and brilliancy; it is "mottled with antithesis, and spangled with allusion:" but it sometimes reaches at wit in the attitude of affectation and conceit.

Mr. D'Israeli has not observed the desirable chronological order in the arrangement and collocation of his materials. On the contrary, he seems to have begun with the more recent, and to have crawled backwards to the more antient dissensions of our writers. This mode produces an inversion of historic succession in the anecdotes, which is painful to the habits of thought, and disturbs the flow of recollection. It also produces a decay of interest in the latter volumes; an anti-climax of solicitude, a growing torpor of the sympathy. The controversies with Pope in the first volume are more stimulant and more attractive of attention, than those of Davenant's æra in the second volume, or than those of Ben Jonson's time, in the third. In a new edition, we should prefer to see the materials placed in a strict chronological series. These, however, are slight imperfections; because, as each explosion of rival animosity is so recorded as to constitute a separate whole, the reader can, by means of the index, turn to each narrative in the real order of event.

The study of controversial compositions is well adapted to teach dialectic resource, to prepare and fashion the mind for inventing new arguments in original cases, and to give a ready command of precise syllogistic induction. Bayle's Critical Dictionary, though but a compilation of controversial erudition, is still the grand European arsenal of literary arguments: it has formed more intellects, and scattered more instruction, than all the lecture-books of taste or the *encyclopedies* of science. Of the work before us, it might be said that it is adapted to form part of a supplement to Bayle; and that it narrates various

various English literary disputes which he has omitted, with more of text and less of annotation, but so as likewise to preserve biographical notices of the disputants, characteristic and pithy specimens of their style, and an abridged outline of their chief arguments.

Chapter i. describes Warburton; an ecclesiastic of more intellect than learning, of more arrogance than tolerance; whose "Divine Legation of Moses," in the name of the Anglican church, sought to shew, and succeeded in shewing, that the doctrine of a future state formed no part of the revelation of Moses to the Israelites. The prophets of the captivity were those who first promulgated this belief in Palestine. The various hostile animadversions of Warburton's opponents are here rapidly pointed out, and critically appreciated: to Lowth, especially, is awarded the praise of superior taste, sagacity, and urbanity. Not enough is said of Gibbon's Disquisition on the sixth book of the Æneid. Warburton was at heart a friend to the cause of illumination; his concessions to philosophy are momentous, and are made with glee: while his scurrilous invectives against philosophers, and his flimsy sophistical paradoxes, in fact form the exoteric declamation, by means of which he reconciled the church to connive at his bold desertion of important positions.

The second, third, fourth, and fifth chapters relate successive squabbles of Pope with the dunces, with the printers, with Cibber, and with Addison. Much bibliographic knowlege of obscure volumes is here displayed by Mr. D'Israeli; whose account of the extraordinary transactions which accompanied the publication of Pope's Letters adds much to the evidence that Dr. Johnson could record on the subject. Concerning the difference between Pope and Addison, he is also curiously informed, and does justice to our critique in April 1769 on Ruffhead's inaccurate statements. The fact is, that Pope had a much stronger intellect than Addison. While Pope was young, and only a candidate for fame, Addison could patronize and praise: but, as soon as Pope had passed him in the career of public admiration, Addison felt envy. With a correctness of manner, more common in the religious than in the gentlemanly world, Addison prompted some attacks on Pope's reputation, which were eventually avenged in the character of Atticus.

A sixth chapter narrates Bolingbroke's posthumous attack on Pope, occasioned by the provisions in his will; and two appendixes accumulate minute particulars of the frays with Lintot and with Settle.

Volume II. opens with the Dissensions, we dare not say Quarrels, of the Royal Society; and even over these dissimilarities

larities of opinion we feel disposed to draw a respectful veil. This narrative, however, does not include the attempt made by the late Bishop Horsley to obtain the president's chair.

The most interesting controversy, of which a history is attempted in the second volume, respects the attack of Bentley on Boyle and his friends, concerning the Epistles of Phalaris. Boyle was young and noble, powerfully assisted, busily praised, and divided the plaudits of the herd of bystanders, when he first withdrew from the arena. He had the indiscretion afterward to publish a volume of poems, which occasioned the following epigram:

> " After his foolish rimes, both friends and foes
> Conclude they know who did not write his prose."

Parker and Marvel next come on the stage: then occurs a dissertation on the complex paper-wars which accompanied the civil wars; with an appendix relative to the political criticism of literary compositions. Writers are in the first instance read by those of their own party; and, when their reputation extends beyonds that sphere, they incur abuse from the adversary. Successful parties bestow on their favourite writers a share in the advantage of their triumph, and frequently consecrate such reputations to a higher and more enduring fame than their obvious merits seem to deserve. It may be questioned, for instance, whether the metaphysical and political celebrity of Locke does not in some degree transcend his natural value. On what topic does Locke any where give a good dissertation; a disquisition which, for matter or style, can safely be compared with the analogous efforts of other classical writers? The makers of elegant extracts have never been able to decorate their pages with his beauties. Voluminous merit is seldom intense.

The third volume devotes two chapters to the literary embarrassments of Hobbes. As this great metaphysician is somewhat undervalued by his country, we shall extract the apology of Mr. D'Israeli:

> ' Hobbes living in times of anarchy, perceived the necessity of re-establishing authority in more than its usual force. But how to melt together the divided opinions of men, and where in the state to place this *arbitrary power*; for a remedy of less force he could not discover for that disordered state of society which he had witnessed. Was the sovereign or the people to be invested with that mighty power which was to keep every other still? — a topic discussed for ages, and still, as the humours of men incline, to be so — was, I believe, a matter perfectly indifferent to our philosopher, provided that whatever might be the government, absolute power could somewhere be lodged in it, to force men to act in strict conformity. It happened

happened that our cynical Hobbes had no respect for his species; and this sovereign remedy of arbitrary power was always unworthy of a great spirit to endure, though convenient for a timid one, like his own. Hobbes considering men merely as animals of prey, living in a state of perpetual hostility, had for his solitary principle of action, Self-preservation at any price.

'He conjured up a political phantom, in a favourite and fanciful notion, that haunted him through life. He imagined that the *many* might be more easily managed by making them up into an artificial *one*, and calling this wonderful political unity the *Commonwealth*, or the *Civil Power*, or the *Sovereign*, or by whatever name was found most pleasing, he personified it by the image of "Leviathan."

'At first sight the ideal monster might pass for an innocent conceit; and there appears even consummate wisdom, in erecting a colossal power for our common security. But terrified by his fears, and desirous only of permanent tranquillity, he assumed, that *authority* was to be supported up to its extreme pitch. *Force* with him appears to have constituted *right*, and *unconditional submission* then became a *duty*: these were consequences quite natural in one who had at his first step degraded man by comparing him to a watch, and who would not have him go but with the same nicety of motions, and be wound up by the great key.

'To be secure, by this system of Hobbes, we must at least lose the glory of our existence as intellectual beings. He would persuade us into the dead quietness of a commonwealth of puppets, while he was consigning into the grasp of his "Leviathan," or sovereign power, the wire that was to communicate a mockery of vital motion — a principle of action without freedom. The system was equally desirable to the Protector Cromwell as to the regal Charles. A conspiracy against mankind could not alarm their governors: it is not therefore surprising that the Usurper offered him the place of secretary of state; and that he was afterwards pensioned by the monarch. A philosophical system, moral or political, is often nothing more than a temporary expedient to turn aside the madness of the times by substituting what offers an appearance of relief; nor is it a little influenced by the immediate convenience of the philosopher himself; his personal character enters a good deal into the system.

'Yet the object of Hobbes in his "Leviathan" was always ambiguous, because it was, in truth, a system of expediency, conveniently adapted to what has been termed of late "existing circumstances." His sole aim was to keep all things in peace, by creating one mightiest power in the state, to suppress instantly all other powers that might rise in insurrection. In his times, the establishment of despotism was the only political restraint he could discover of sufficient force to chain man down, amidst the turbulence of society; but this concealed end he is perpetually shifting and disguising; for the truth is, no man loved slavery less.

'The system of Hobbes could not be limited to his politics: he knew that the safety of the people's morals required an *established religion*. The alliance between church and state had been so vio-

lently shaken, that it was necessary to cement them once more. As our philosopher had been terrified in his politics by the view of its contending factions; so, in religion, he experienced the same terror at the hereditary rancours of its multiplied sects. He could devise no other means, than to attack the mysteries and dogmas of theologians, those after-inventions and corruptions of Christianity, by which the artifices of their chiefs had so long split them into perpetual factions: he therefore asserted, that the religion of the people ought to exist, in strict conformity to the will of the state.

'When Hobbes wrote against mysteries, the mere polemics sent forth a cry of his impiety; the philosopher was branded with atheism;—one of those artful calumnies, of which, after a man has washed himself clean, the stain will be found to have dyed the skin.

'The result of my enquiries to me appears, that Hobbes, to put an end to these religious wars, which his age and country had witnessed, perpetually kindled by crazy fanatics and intolerant dogmatists, insisted that the *crosier* should be carried in the *left* hand of his Leviathan, and the *sword* in his right. He testified, as strongly as man could, by his public actions, that he was a Christian of the church of England, "as by law established," and therefore no enemy to the episcopal order. But he dreaded the encroachments of the churchmen in his political system; that *supremacy* at which some of them aimed. Many enlightened bishops sided with the philosopher. The practical wisdom of Hobbes's philosophy may be shewn in its result. At a time when Milton sullenly withdrew from every public testimonial of Divine worship, Hobbes, with more enlightened views, *attended church-service*, and strenuously supported *an established religion*; so that the Divinity be adored by our conscience, the manner must be merely human; yet one is deemed a religious man, and the other an Atheist! Were the *actions* of men to be decisive of their characters, the reverse might be inferred.'

To this account, many interesting notes are attached, which we have not room to reprint: they serve to shew the contradictory impressions made on various pretenders to philosophy by the writings of Hobbes. Like Selden, he was an Erastian, and held the entire subordination of the church to the state.

The third chapter of the third volume treats of Ben Jonson and Decker: but it is a less amusing dissertation than the ensuing one concerning Camden and Brooke. Camden, as an antiquary, is still over-valued. He introduced into our antiquities the prejudices of a Welshman, and has endeavoured to deprive the English nation of the honour of a Gothic descent: while he teaches, contrary to evidence, that the Cimbri once inhabited the eastern coast; whereas the Romans had a Count of the Saxon shore among their earliest prefects, whose sway included all the provinces between Norfolk and Kent. Brooke pointed out

numberless inaccuracies, which Camden corrected with illiberal reticency.

The fifth and concluding chapter relates to Martin Marprelate. The time approaches for a calm literary history of the Reformation: literature may now venture to criticize the articles of a superseded faith, and the dogmas of a vulgar credulity; — and we much wish that a person, independently circumstanced, like Mr. D'Israeli, would extend his preparations for the task to a review of all the connected controversies which have diversified the literature of this country.

An appendix relative to Literary Quarrels, (here the word is in its place,) from personal motives, terminates this poignant and agreeable work. Middleton and Bentley, Warburton and Edwards, Swift and Dryden, Rowe and Addison, Hawkins and Stevens, form the personages of these bucolic strifes. Some of the interlocutors, Edwards for instance, would never have taken the trouble to become known to the world but for the stimulus of anger. Let us, then, not regret that authors are an irritable race: those who can subdue their anger are usually venal; and what but anger can overcome the probable indolence of independence?

ART. III. *Supplement to the Memoirs of the Life, Writings, Discourses, and Professional Works of Sir J. Reynolds*, Knt. Late President of the Royal Academy. Comprising additional Anecdotes of his distinguished Contemporaries. By James Northcote, Esq. R.A. 4to. pp. 160. 15s. Boards. Colburn. 1815.

THE life of Sir Joshua Reynolds, to which this volume serves as a supplement, was *distilled* if not *rectified* by us in our lxxvith volume, p. 113. Several curious and some important corrections are now added, of which we will specify the principal.

In addition to the account in the former volume of the artists who have flourished in Devonshire, we have now (p.v.) a concise biography of Mr. Thomas Rennell, a portrait-painter, whose works have given origin only to one print. — Some critical memoranda made by Sir Joshua Reynolds at Rome concerning the pictures which he most sedulously contemplated, or copied, are reprinted from his manuscript, (p. viii.—xvi.) and include many characteristic remarks. An anecdote of Roubiliac may amuse our readers:

"" Roubiliac, being on a visit in Wiltshire, happened to take a walk in a church-yard on a Sunday morning, near Bowood, just as the congregation was coming out of church; and meeting with

old Lord Shelburne, though perfect strangers to each other, they entered into conversation, which ended in an invitation to dinner. When the company were all assembled at table, Roubiliac discovered a fine antique bust of one of the Roman empresses, which stood over a side-table, when immediately running up to it with a degree of enthusiasm, he exclaimed, "What an air! what a pretty mouth! what *tout ensemble!*" The company began to stare at one another for some time, and Roubiliac regained his seat; but instead of eating his dinner, or shewing attention to any thing about him, he every now and then burst out into fits of admiration in praise of the bust. The guests by this time, concluding he was mad, began to retire one by one, till Lord Shelburne was almost left alone. This determined his Lordship to be a little more particular; and he now, for the first time, asked him his name. "My name!" says the other, "What, do you not know me then? My name is Roubiliac."—"I beg your pardon, Sir," said his Lordship; "I now feel that I should have known you." Then calling on the company, who had retired to the next room, he said, "Ladies and gentlemen, you may come in; this is no absolute madman. This is M. Roubiliac, the greatest statuary of his day, and only occasionally mad in the admiration of his art."

Something might have been said of Adolphus, who was much employed when Sir Joshua Reynolds came out, and who *could* paint a hand; while Sir Joshua, like Hudson, repeatedly eluded this difficulty in his portraits by hiding the hand in the waistcoat. Sir Joshua was not great as an anatomist; he was greater as a stylist; he attacks the gaudy tints, and broad daylight of Liotard, by calling them the colouring of a fan-painter: we might now use the phrase "tea-tray colouring."

A good observation occurs at p. xxvi. which is applicable to many arts; viz. that no man ever acquired a fortune by the work of his own hands alone.

Some anecdotes of Hogarth are given at p. xxxix. which have sufficient connection with this biography to justify their insertion. Letters of Barry also occur; he wanted industry, and in consequence wanted temper.

Important additions to the catalogue and chronology of Sir Joshua's works are frequently interspersed.

The following anecdote deserves repetition,—*malicious* repetition;—it should be taught to the members of every cathedral, and be made to reverberate from every echoing aile, until Deans and Bishops and Chapters every where become ashamed of resembling Dr. Terrick, who, unfortunately for the arts, and for the national glory, was the bishop of London in 1773. His bigotry against popery seems to have been a regularly operative preparatory cause of the horrible riots of 1780, and of the Irish rebellions since.

"Dr. New

'"Dr. Newton, late Bishop of Bristol, and Dean of St. Paul's, was an enthusiastic admirer and lover of the arts, and also a great friend to artists. One day, Sir Joshua Reynolds and Mr. West were dining with him at his house, and, in the course of conversation, one of them observed how great an ornament it would be to that cathedral if it were to be furnished with appropriate paintings to fill up those large vacant compartments and pannels, and which the architect, Sir Christopher Wren himself, had purposed to have added to finish the building. On this, Mr. West generously offered to give a picture of his own painting, and Sir Joshua cheerfully agreed to follow his example, in order to make a beginning. Mr. West proposed to paint the subject of Moses with the Laws; and Sir Joshua offered a Nativity. The Bishop was enraptured with the plan; and he, being Dean of St. Paul's, concluded that his influence was fully sufficient to produce a completion of the business.

'"The guardians of the cathedral are the King, the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishop of London, and the Dean and Chapter of St. Paul's, and the Lord Mayor of London, for the time being.

'"The good Dr. Newton first went to the King, whose ready and hearty consent was immediately given, as were likewise those of the Archbishop, and also of the Lord Mayor; and the Chapter, with the Dean at their head, of course, had no objection. But unluckily, the very person who possessed most power in that church, was the last consulted on the business; that was Dr. Terrick, then Bishop of London: and when Dr. Newton paid him a visit to inform him of the hopeful progress he had made and to receive his consent, the old bishop patiently heard him to the end of his speech, when, assuming a very grave countenance, he replied, "My good Lord Bishop of Bristol, I have already been distantly and imperfectly informed of such an affair having been in contemplation; but as the sole power at last remains with myself, I therefore inform your Lordship, that, whilst I live and have the power, I will never suffer the doors of the metropolitan church to be opened for the introduction of popery into it."'

We now extract a few detached anecdotes:

'Garrick, one day, dining with a large company, soon after dinner left the room, and it was supposed had left the house; but one of the party, on going into the area to seek him, found Mr. Garrick, who had been there some time, fully occupied in amusing a negro boy who was a servant in the family, by mimicking the manner and noise of a turkey cock, which diverted the boy to such a degree that he was convulsed with laughter, and only able now and then to utter, "Oh, Masser Garrick! You will kill me, Masser Garrick!"'—

'I have already taken notice of the assistance which Sir Joshua received, as usual with painters who are much occupied, in the accessories of his portraits. One of those assistants, Peter Toms, was certainly a very good drapery painter, and, as I have observed in the Memoir, was frequently employed by Sir Joshua in that part of his pictures; but the manner of Toms's pencilling did not exactly harmonize with the style of Sir Joshua's heads, as it was heavy, and

wanted freedom, so that his work had too much the appearance of having been done with a stamp, as the paper-hangings for rooms are executed. Sometimes he misunderstood Sir Joshua's intention in the picture; once in particular, in a full length portrait of a lady, instead of painting her in a rural habit, as Sir Joshua had designed, he had turned it into a dress of state. When Sir Joshua saw the picture, he expostulated with Toms, and told him that it would not do by any means, and, in short, that he must paint it all over again. Toms refused, saying he had worked upon the drapery till his heart ached, and he could do no more to it; adding, "you ought to be more explicit when you give the pictures into my hands." Sir Joshua said the drapery did not accord with the head. Toms answered, "that is because your heads are painted on a diminished scale." When Sir Joshua, mistaking him, in a great alarm cried out, "What, do you say that I paint in a little manner? Did you say mine is a little manner?" "No," replied Toms, "but I say that your heads are less than the life."

'Toms afterwards became very poor, and it is said died a violent death by his own hands.'—

'Count D'Adhémar, some time ambassador from the former court of France, when in England, had two portraits at his house in London — one of the late unfortunate Queen of France, and the other of her favorite lady, Madame de Polignac; these were by the hand of Madame Le Brun, the most esteemed artist of France for portraits.

'When D'Adhémar left England, his house was publicly shown at the sale of his furniture: the nobility flocked to see those two portraits; and it became the fashion to admire them, and to speak of them with the utmost extravagance of praise. But an eminent English painter, of the time, who did not coincide with the popular opinion, has thus ludicrously described the excellencies of Madame Le Brun's merits:—

'"Where burnish'd beads, silk satin, laces vie,
In leaden lustre with the gooseberry eye;
Where broad cloth breathes, to talk where cushions strive,
And all, but Sir, or Madam, looks alive!"

'These portraits Sir Joshua also went to see, and soon after, when I paid him a visit, I found him with Mr. Merry, the poet, discoursing upon the merits of those very pictures. As I had not conceived that it was worth any painter's trouble to go to see them, I had not gone, but was glad when I found that he had seen them, that I might have the opinion of so great a judge.

'I said, "Pray what do you think of them, Sir Joshua?"

'"That they are very fine," he answered.

'"How fine?" I said.

'"As fine as those of any painter," was his answer.

'"As fine as those of any painter, do you say? Do you mean living or dead?"—

'When he answered me rather briskly, "Either living or dead."

'I then, in great surprize, exclaimed, "Good G— ! what as fine as Vandyke?"

'He

'He answered tartly, "Yes, and finer."

'I said no more, perceiving he was displeased at my questioning him.

'I mention the above circumstance to shew his disinclination to oppose the popular opinion, or to say any thing against the interest of a cotemporary artist: as it was not his intention to mislead me, but only to put a stop to my enquiries.'—

'We may be permitted to sum up our opinions of Reynolds' sentiments on art, and of his mode of expressing them, by an anecdote, told me by the late Mr. Opie, that a friend of his, a clergyman, declared to him, that he once delivered one of Sir Joshua's discourses, from the pulpit, as a sermon, with no other alteration but in such words as made it applicable to morals instead of the fine arts: which is a proof of the depth of his reasoning, and of its foundation being formed on the principles of general nature.

'To the foregoing observations on the subject of art, by Sir Joshua himself, I take the liberty to add some lines by the well-known Peter Pindar, and which have never before appeared in print.

'ADVICE TO YOUNG PAINTERS. BY PETER PINDAR.

'Study Sir Joshua's works, young men;—
Not pictures only, but his pen;
Who, when Cimmerian darkness whelm'd our isle,
Appear'd a comet in his art;—
Bid nature from the canvas start,
And with the Graces bade that canvas smile.

'Could Titian from his tomb arise,
And cast on Reynolds' art his eyes,
How would he heave of jealousy the groan!
Here possibly I may mistake;
As Titian probably might take
The works of our great master for his own.'

'As a further proof of the high opinion which Dr. Wolcot entertained of Sir Joshua's merits, I shall give an extract from a letter of his to a friend.

'"As nothing affords you a higher treat than something relative to Reynolds, be informed then of what will excite your envy.

'"I lately breakfasted with him at his house in Leicester-fields. After some desultory remarks on the old masters, but not one word of the living artists, (as on that subject one can never obtain his real opinion,) the conversation turned on Dr. Johnson. On my asking him how the club, to which he belonged, could so patiently suffer the tyranny of this overbearing man, he replied, with a smile, that the members often hazarded sentiments merely to try his powers in contradiction. I think I in some measure wounded the feelings of Reynolds, by observing that I had often thought that the Ramblers were Idlers, and the Idlers Ramblers, (except those papers which he (Reynolds) had contributed); and further, that Johnson too frequently acted the reverse of the gipsies:—"The gipsies," said I, "when they steal the children of gentlefolks, conceal the theft by

beggarly disguises, whereas Johnson often steals common thoughts, disguising the theft by a pomp of language.

'" Happening to be in company with Dr. Johnson, and observing to him that his portrait by Reynolds was not sufficiently dignified; prepared with a flat contradiction, he replied, in a kind of bull-dog growl, "No, Sir! — the pencil of Reynolds never wanted dignity nor the Graces."

'" It is a lucky thing for an artist to be possessed of the favour of the fashionable world: fortune then shows no objection towards a co-operation with his labours. — Reynolds avails himself of this circumstance; and, in spite of rivals and a too great mortality of colours, stands his ground like a Hercules, and defies envy, hatred, and malice; in short, all the virulent attacks made on his performances." '

Mr. Northcote bestows (p. cii.) just praise on a letter of Reynolds: but we think that his language is incorrect when he proceeds to this assertion: — 'To say that nature is out of harmony is a contradiction in terms, and of course nonsense.' Where would be the contradiction? Nature is sometimes out of harmony; as when she illuminates the bay of Naples at the same time with volcanic light and with moonlight. Violent contrarieties of colour, and all gaudy colours, are out of harmony, but not out of nature. Harmony is agreeable concord, — proportionate tone. Nature knows better than to be always harmonious; and so should a painter. *Toujours perdrix* is tiresome eating; and the drab-coloured creations of the harmonists accomplish, we fear, but an insipid sort of painting. Mr. Northcote is contemptuously harsh against the phraseology of other critics; let him be careful not to incur the reproach of jargon, of using words without a precise, definite, and agreed meaning.

Interesting anecdotes and effusions of Miss Reynolds are introduced in this supplement. A letter is also in part given, which Burke anonymously addressed to Barry, and in the writing of which he had consulted Sir Joshua; this letter is entirely in the spirit of Reynolds's academic discourses. — In conclusion, we have a few particulars of the posthumous sale of Sir Joshua's pictures.

The possessors of Mr. Northcote's larger biography will of course be desirous of this appendix, which supplies some deficiencies, and adds numerous anecdotes. Whether the whole work would not admit of some compression, without any detriment to its completeness, is a question which may deserve the author's consideration, before he determines on consolidating his somewhat disjointed fragments in a new octavo edition. The public, however, are much indebted to Mr. Northcote. It is always of value to hear an artist dissert on art, since the instinctive impressions of the profession are usually well founded.

ed, and deserve habitual deference. Yet the art of translating into language the real causes of these impressions is so difficult, that a literary critic must often confound with prejudice the opinions of a technical man. Words are employed which excite only in the school the ideas that they are intended to convey; —words that are often ill chosen, and are etymologically unfit to express the qualities to which they are applied. The word *keeping* is an instance, which some translator of French verbiage introduced as equivalent with *tenue*, but which, in our tongue, has no inherent aptness for describing relative attitude, or figural perspective, to which we should suppose the artists intend to apply it. A great service might be rendered to the criticism of art, by attempting to define with precision the slang phrases of the painting-room. *Effect* is a vague term; and so is *Repose*; they help us to talk, not to judge. Every unmotived decision is liable to future appeal; and every indefinite decision is open to the suspicion of incompetence. Praise and blame are always at first excessive: but by degrees men select among the panegyrical and satirical epithets those which are in fact reconcilable; and thus judgments, that are for a time apparently contradictory, acquire the stability of common consent. The idolaters would incur less ridicule, and the snarlers less odium, if they would at once endeavour to insist only on just notice. The task of settling a reputation is abridged by temperate precision, and is never abandoned to hyperbolical declaimers.

ART. IV. *An Account of the most important recent Discoveries and Improvements in Chemistry and Mineralogy*, to the present Time; being an Appendix to their Dictionary of Chemistry and Mineralogy, by A. and C. R. Aikin. 4to. 18s. Boards. Arch, and Phillips. 1814.

DURING the few years that have elapsed since the publication of Messrs. Aikins' Dictionary of Chemistry, so many new discoveries have been made, and so much important discussion has taken place respecting the theory of certain operations, that the authors have deemed it necessary to review their former labours, and to bring down the history of the science to the present period. This they have done by forming an appendix, which will enable the purchasers of the original volumes to possess a complete body of chemical knowlege, with the most recent improvements and corrections.

One of the most material articles in this appendix is *Affinity*, in which we have an abstract of Mr. Dalton's atomic theory, as it has been called; confirmed, as it appears to be, by

by the experiments of Drs. Wollaston and Thomson, and illustrated, if not extended, by the sagacious observations of Prof. Berzelius. It begins by stating that 'M. Berthollet, one of the most profound and eminent chemical philosophers of the age, has endeavoured to shew that it is the tendency of chemical affinity to combine bodies in all proportions, so that where any limits to this indefinite combination appear, they arise from the operation of circumstances distinct from chemical affinity, which essentially modify its action. On the other hand, it is advanced by many most ingenious chemists, and supported by a daily increasing body of experiments, that substances unite in proportions which are rendered definite by the sole operation of their mutual affinity, and are equally definite whether only one or more compounds of the same bodies exist.' This opinion had been formerly advanced by many learned chemists: but Mr. Dalton, by his accurate method of shewing the nature of the effects which take place, moulded the hypothesis into a distinct form, and reduced it to such a state as to bring it within the reach of experiment. The fundamental principle, that bodies not only unite in definite proportions but that the proportions are to each other in certain ratios, and these of the simplest kind, appears to be every day more firmly established by new experiments. The authors present us with a luminous view of the train of reasoning employed by Mr. Dalton to establish his hypothesis, together with the proofs advanced by himself and others in its support; and the labours of Prof. Berzelius on this subject are detailed at considerable length, and with much perspicuity.

The article *Alcohol and Ether* contains many valuable additions, affording an abstract of the analytical experiments of Saussure on these fluids, and on the composition and properties of the different species of ether by M. Thenard. It concludes with a view of Mr. Brande's experiments, made in order to ascertain whether alcohol exists in fermented liquors and is only separated from them by distillation, or whether it be actually formed by this process.

Under the word *Alkali*, we have much new and important matter. The writers begin by an account of the experiments of Darcet, Berthollet, Thenard, and others, on the quantity of water which remains attached to the fixed alkalies, after the process of ignition; and which is now found to enter into their constitution, and to form with them what have been called hydrates. — The grand discoveries of Sir H. Davy are next announced:

'One of the most interesting discoveries of modern chemistry is the decomposition of fixed alkalies, which had often been conjectured

tured to be of a compound nature, but no evidence of the truth of this opinion had ever been given till Sir H. Davy applied to this enquiry the astonishing powers of electro-chemical agency. The researches which he had made on the decomposition of acids and neutral salts by galvanic electricity were full of new and most interesting results, they pointed out a mode of chemical analysis far more powerful than any that had been hitherto undertaken, and the admirable skill in contriving experiments, and sagacity in deducing from them the general laws of chemical decomposition, enabled him to make the brilliant discovery which is the subject of this article. He conjectured that if a freed alkali was an oxyd of some unknown base,' it was probable that when it was subjected to the action of opposite electricities, the oxygen of the alkali would be conveyed to the positive pole, whilst the inflammable base would appear in a separate state at the negative pole.'

Our chemical readers are well acquainted with the result of this fortunate conjecture. — Messrs. Aikin then give a minute account of the process of MM. Gay-Lussac and Thenard, for obtaining the alkaline metals by heating iron turnings in a gun-barrel, and passing melted potash through them while in this state. The properties of potassium and sodium, with their action on the different bodies to which they have been applied, their oxyds, and their combinations with hydrogen and with the different metals, are all described with brevity, but with a sufficient degree of clearness. — Under the article *Ammonia*, we have an account of all the attempts that have been made to procure a metallic basis from it, analogous to those of the fixed alkalies; with the controversies and hypotheses to which the experiments have given rise.

The article *Blood* contains the result of the labours of different chemists on the analysis of this complicated fluid. Dr. Bostock is first noticed, as having controverted the opinion formerly entertained, that jelly was one of the constituents of the blood; and this correction has been since confirmed by Dr. Marcet and Mr. Brande. The latter chemist has also made some interesting experiments on the nature of the colouring matter of the red particles; and Prof. Berzelius, who has extended his researches to this fluid, has produced several important additions to our knowlege of its nature, which are duly recorded.

Among other new articles, which we have observed as we passed along, we may notice that of *Carbon*, *Carburetted Hydrogen* in all its varieties, and *Fluoric Acid*, with its combinations. We have likewise a clear and interesting view of the controversy that has engaged so much attention respecting the nature of the oxymuriatic acid, under the term *Muriatic Acid*, and we shall make a quotation from this part:

'1. The

'1. The opinion of the *acid* nature of this substance, modified by the results of the experiments of Messrs. Gay-Lussac and Thenard, is the following. Muriatic acid is, like the other acids, a compound of some base (hitherto unknown) and oxygen; it has never been obtained in a separate state, as it is only known to chemists as *Muriatic Acid Gas*, or as forming a part of the alkaline, earthy, or metallic *Muriats*. In the former case, the muriatic acid is intimately combined with about a fourth of its weight of *water*, (or of the oxygen and hydrogen which are the elements of this quantity of water,) and this is absolutely essential to the existence of muriatic acid *in the gasseous state*, so that under no circumstances can this acid be expelled from its solid combinations, unless such a quantity of water is present as will unite with the gas at the moment of its formation, and will then amount to about a fourth of the weight of the gas. This water exists in muriatic gas in a different mode of combination from that which constitutes the common hygrometrical moisture of gasses, and therefore cannot be separated by solid potash, lime, dry muriat of lime, or intense cold, which are the means successfully used to render the other gasses dry. But when muriatic acid gas is united with any of the alkaline, earthy, or metallic bases, that portion of water which was essential to the acid in an insulated state is no longer retained, and may be expelled from most of them (though often with considerable difficulty) by mere heat.

'Oxymuriatic acid on this theory is a compound of muriatic acid and oxygen; and oxymuriatic gas contains oxygen equal to half its volume; but the muriatic acid gas, with which it is united, is not combined with water, as it is in the insulated state of muriatic acid gas, but if it contains any water, it is only as common hygrometric moisture, which may readily be abstracted by any of the means above mentioned. Hence, in order to convert dried oxymuriatic acid gas to muriatic gas, it is necessary either to abstract oxygen, and to add water in substance; or else to add hydrogen, which by uniting with the excess of oxygen may produce water, this, as before mentioned, being essential to the constitution of muriatic acid gas.

'2. The theory adopted by Sir H. Davy is the following:

'Oxymuriatic acid is a substance hitherto undecompounded, and therefore must at present be considered as an element; it contains no oxygen, at least none has ever been extracted from it; it unites with most metals and salifiable bases, forming the *muriats*, which therefore are not (like the sulphats, nitrats, &c.) compounds of an *oxydated* base and an acid, but are composed merely of the base and of oxymuriatic acid. Thus, for example, common salt, or muriat of soda, when perfectly dry, is according to this hypothesis composed, not of soda and muriatic acid, but of sodium and oxymuriatic acid, and so of the rest. Oxymuriatic acid will, however, unite with oxygen, forming a very singular compound, whose properties have been discovered by Sir H. Davy. This eminent chemist gives the name of *Chlorine* to oxymuriatic acid, and of *Euchlorine* to the compound of oxymuriatic acid and oxygen, which will be presently described.

'Muriatic

'Muriatic acid, according to this theory, is a compound of oxymuriatic acid and hydrogen in equal volumes; it contains no water of composition, for none can be procured from it, unless by substances that contain oxygen, and the quantity of water produced is exactly equal to the oxygen contained in the substance employed, added to the hydrogen supposed to exist in the muriatic acid gas. The salts called *muriats* are, when perfectly dry, composed of oxymuriatic acid and the respective bases, but not in the state of oxyds; but as soon as water is added to a dry muriat, a double decomposition takes place, the oxygen of the water goes to the base of the muriat converting it to an oxyd, the hydrogen of the water unites with the oxymuriatic acid, converting it to muriatic acid, and the compound now becomes really a muriated oxyd. On the other hand, if this muriated oxyd is again dried in the heat of ignition, the salt is again decomposed, the hydrogen of the muriatic acid escapes with the oxygen of the oxyd in the form of water; and the salt returns to the state of a simple binary compound of oxymuriatic acid and the base.'

We have then an abstract of the experiments of MM. Gay-Lussac and Thenard, in support of the former of these hypotheses; and of those of Sir H. Davy on the latter, which are detailed with the usual perspicuity and candour of the authors.

The additional article *Sulphur* contains a large quantity of new and interesting matter. A long account is given of carburetted sulphur, of its discovery by Lampadius, of the successive experiments that have been performed on it by MM. Clement and Desormes, M. Berthollet, M. Vauquelin, M. Cluzel, and lastly by Prof. Berzelius and Dr. Marcet; with the various opinions that have been formed respecting its nature and composition. We are also presented with an abstract of the new discoveries on the subject of sulphuretted hydrogen, sulphurized muriatic acid, and sulphuric acid.

We have now pointed out a few of the leading articles to which the most important augmentations have been made; and besides these the additions to the mineralogical part are very numerous. The accounts of almost all the metals have received new matter, and many minerals are now introduced for the first time. On the whole, we can venture to assure our readers that the Appendix fully supports the credit of the former work.

Art.

ART. V. *Hints addressed to the Patrons and Directors of Schools*; principally intended to shew, that the Benefits derived from the new Modes of teaching may be increased by a partial Adoption of the Plan of Pestalozzi. To which are subjoined Examples of Questions calculated to excite and exercise the infant Mind. By Mrs. Elizabeth Hamilton, Author of Letters on the Elementary Principles of Education, &c. &c. 12mo. pp. 354. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

MRS. HAMILTON'S Popular Essays were analyzed with respectful attention in our lxxivth volume, p. 402.; and if on that occasion we wished for something less of tautology in the style, and of abstraction in the ideas, we applauded the useful purpose and exemplary piety of the dissertations. The little volume before us has in our judgment yet greater practical merit; it records many observations, and suggests various hints, relative to the better management and conduct of charity-schools for young females.

The work contains two parts. The first consists principally in details of past experience, and contrasts with fairness the relative effects of Dr. Bell's and Mr. Lancaster's system. Perhaps that of Dr. Bell is best for girls, because it exacts a more entire submission; and perhaps that of Mr. Lancaster is best for boys, as being plainly more founded on independence. To much personal insight into the mode of guiding charity-schools, Mrs. Hamilton adds the recommendation of being conversant with the system of Pestalozzi; which has the merit of impressing the memory of children by the perpetual use of sensible imagery, teaching mathematics, as Dr. Beddoes proposed, with geometrical figures of box-wood; and the farther merit of consulting the natural order of science, in the successive steps of instruction. Pestalozzi's scheme, however, is too comprehensive to be realized in all charity-schools; it makes great use of interrogative teaching, and has a catechism for every branch of learning.

One of the reforms proposed by Mrs. Hamilton is this:

'To proceed to a third method of teaching arithmetic, — the method employed by Pestalozzi.—

'Knowing that the first notion of numbers must necessarily be obtained through the medium of the external senses, it is by objects adapted to the senses of sight and touch, and not by words alone, that he gives the first ideas upon the subject to the infant mind. The teacher, taking a handful of beans, (or what else he chuses to use as counters,) gives one to each of the little pupils placed round his table. This each lays before him, and pronounces to be *one bean*. Another *one* is then given, and the first and second *one* are placed together, and, when thus united, assume the name of *two*. Another *one* bean is added, and the whole put together become *three*. This process

process is continued until all are capable of distinctly counting to the number ten. Each is then desired to take from his heap two beans, and having placed them together on the table, puts then other two down at a small distance, and having named the separate quantities, two and two, is made to join them together; and if his notion of numbers obtained in the former part of the exercise has been sufficiently accurate, he will easily, by the exertion of his own perceptions, be enabled to give to the number its appropriate term. In this way a distinct notion of all the combinations of which the units are susceptible is introduced. A knowledge of the figures which are the signs of numbers is next given. And then, again, by means of counters, which answer for tens, and the beans, which have represented units, the process is carried forward as far as may be found necessary. All the rules of arithmetic are taught by Pestalozzi on the same principle. I say nothing of his tables, and other contrivances for facilitating his purpose, as such apparatus, however useful, are by no means essential to the communication of clear ideas, which is the primary object in view.

'So seldom, however, does this object enter into the contemplation of teachers, it would not occasion me any surprise to find, that among the numbers who, at the schools established on the new systems, seem in this branch of education to have made astonishing progress, there were nevertheless many, who, notwithstanding their adroitness in working questions in arithmetic, would, from want of clear ideas upon the subject, be extremely puzzled by the simplest proposition, if put in a form differing from that to which they had been accustomed. I know this to have been the case in one instance; — the amiable and excellent young men, to whose benevolence the school owed its existence, having given it as a reason for discontinuing the Lancastrian method of teaching multiplication.'

The second part of Mrs. Hamilton's work consists of Examples of Questions calculated to develope the faculties of the infant mind. Some of these catechisms of elementary information are well devised: but others are somewhat pedantic. For instance, in the second section the question occurs:

'*Questioner.* Let us now examine the forms of the capital letters of the alphabet. What letter is formed by two oblique lines meeting at top, and slanting opposite ways, and joined about half way down by a short line across? (A)

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Describe to me how this next letter is formed.'

This solemn trifling reminds us of a puzzle in an old book of riddles intitled *How to make a Plant by Geometry;* in which the direction is thus given. Bisect a right line, and from the point of bisection let fall a perpendicular. Describe a circle. Unite the diameters of two semicircles. Produce equally the equal legs of an isosceles triangle. Describe a semicircle. Describe another semicircle. Describe a circle. After this process, the young

young geometrician discovers on his slate that he has printed in capitals the word TOBACCO.

We will give, however, a more favourable specimen, and transcribe the eighth section, or catechism, which revives a favourite topic of Mrs. Hamilton, the necessity of notice or observation:

'*Questioner.* Has God, in giving you sight, bestowed on you a great blessing?

'*Answer.* . . . . . .

'Q. Are you very thankful to God for being able to see?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Do you think that God gave you sight in order that you might always see what was before your eyes?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. But do you really always see all that is within reach of your sight?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Does it never happen, that though sitting within sight of the door, you do not perceive whether it is shut or open?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Does it never happen, that though sitting by the fire-side, you do not observe whether the hearth be clean or dirty; or whether the fire-irons be in their proper places?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Do you always, without being desired to notice, observe whether things that ought to be laid in a straight line are so or not?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. When you do not perceive these things, is it because they are not within reach of your sight?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Do you at such times make use of your eyes, or do you not?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. If any of your companions were to come before you with a fool's cap on her head, do you think that you would not immediately observe her dress?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. It seems, then, that you do not fail to see whatever by its strange appearance attracts your notice?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. But did God bestow on you the blessing of sight for no other purpose but that you might see such things as strike your fancy?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Have you the power to see whatever you chuse to notice?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Is it by noticing useful things, or by noticing foolish things, that you will be most likely to improve in knowledge and in usefulness?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Have we in the glorious works of creation, in the sun, and moon, and stars, and in the earth and all that it produces, proofs of the wisdom, and goodness, and power of the great Creator?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Ought we then, or ought we not, to take notice of every object of nature which comes within reach of our observation?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. When you take notice of the beauty of the sky above, or of aught that springs in the earth, and at the same time raise your heart in thankfulness to the Creator, are you then making a good use of the blessing of sight?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. But were you to take notice only of such things, would you ever learn to become useful to others?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Is it then necessary for you to learn to observe things of a lower order,—the things that are commonly around you?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Of two threads, one person sees at a glance which is the finest, while another, with sight equally good, sees no difference between them. Now, tell me to which of these two persons the blessing of sight is most truly useful?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Of two servants employed in such household work as necessarily soils the hands, one sees not that her hands are dirty, and even sees not the dirty marks they make on the walls or doors, or whatever they touch, while the other no sooner soils her hands than she observes the circumstance, and touches nothing until they are restored to cleanness. Now, tell me the cause of this difference between them; does one see better than the other?

'A. . . . . .

'Q. Of two girls walking in the street, one shall see a horse or carriage coming up, and, while it is yet at a distance, shall move deliberately out of its way, while the other, not seeing its approach, walks on till it is quite close to her, and then, in fright, knows not which way to run, and is perhaps run over at the peril of her life: is it not then happy for her who had acquired the habit of taking notice?'

The ninth or next ensuing dialogue, on labour and design, continues the same topic in a very useful and happy manner. To ladies engaged in the management of charity-schools for females, this little volume will be truly valuable; since it will be found to facilitate the duties of visitors, and to supply a fund of intelligent inquiry, adapted to secure the praise of skilful superintendance.

ART. VI. *Observations on Pulmonary Consumption.* By H. H. Southey, M.D. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

HAVING divided his essay into four parts, Dr. Southey treats successively of the Symptoms, the Appearances on Dissection, the Causes, and the Treatment of the Disease which is the

subject of discussion. After some general remarks on the varieties of the human species, and having observed that the four temperaments of the antients were not sufficiently comprehensive to include all the well-marked differences which actually exist, he gives a description of what he regards as the scrofulous temperament, which is supposed to be characterized by very distinct features. Persons of this peculiar habit are the most liable to phthisis; although it is admitted that a disease in every respect similar may occasionally occur from accidental causes. In the enumeration of the circumstances which denote the scrofulous constitution, and in the history which is afterward given of the gradual approach and subsequent confirmation of the phthisical state, we do not perceive any thing that is new or sufficiently striking to arrest our attention.

It moreover does not appear to us that the author supplies any very interesting remarks on the second subject on which he treats, viz. the Appearances on Dissection. He inquires briefly into the nature of tubercles, enumerates the derangements of structure which the substance of the lungs presents, and mentions some facts which shew that respiration can be carried on when only a small portion of the lungs preserves its natural state.

The chapter on the Predisposing and Exciting Causes is more interesting, as it contains an abstract of the opinions of different authors on the important question respecting the effect of climate on Consumption. 'What are the countries,' Dr. S. asks, 'if any, exempt from pulmonary Consumption? and where does it occur most frequently? What are the modes of life which prevail in such countries? What classes of the community in our own island seem most, and what least, liable to this malady?' Dr. Southey, beginning with Iceland, then details the accounts of various writers, both medical men and geographers, respecting the state of Consumption in the different countries of Europe; and afterward, in some situations, in the other quarters of the world. The whole presents a melancholy picture of the widely spreading ravages of this disease, and seems to indicate that those individuals, who leave their homes in order to enjoy a more genial climate, do not always make an advantageous exchange. — Consumption appears to be very rare in Egypt, and also in some of the West Indian islands.

Dr. Wells, in a valuable paper in the Medico-Chirurgical Transactions, had noticed that those situations which are most obnoxious to ague are least affected with Consumption; and the present author has taken some pains to investigate this point.

point. The result of his inquiry, however, is not favourable to Dr. Wells's hypothesis: since it appears, by the testimony of those practitioners who are the most competent to decide on the question from their opportunities of local observation, that Consumption is not unfrequently generated in marshy districts, and proves as fatal there as in other parts of the same country; and that the two diseases, if not co-existent, readily supervene one on the other, and even seem to favour their mutual invasion. The general insalubrity of fenny situations must carry off many delicate persons, who might otherwise have become the victims of Consumption; and thus the disease may seem less frequent among the inhabitants who remain. In the same manner, the general introduction of the cow-pox inoculation must cause other infantile diseases to appear more fatal; because all those who would, in the common course of events, have died from small-pox, are left exposed to measles, chincough, &c.

The treatment of Consumption naturally divides itself into the two heads of prevention and cure, of which the former is by far the most important; indeed so much so that, when the disease is once formed, we regard all farther attempts at relief as almost hopeless. The principal point, connected with this subject, which deserves our notice, is the reference which the author makes to the customs and mode of life of the Russians; who, although they inhabit a very rigorous climate, are nearly exempt from Consumption. This circumstance is attributed to their living in warm habitations, to their use of warm clothing, and to their frequent employment of the warm bath; by which means, it would seem, 'men who are exposed during a number of hours every day to an intensely cold atmosphere can bear their exposure with impunity.' It is also stated that the Russian boor takes a greater proportion of animal food in his diet than the English labourer; and this circumstance is supposed to have some influence in enabling him to bear a low temperature.

A deficiency of warmth and nutrition is supposed by the author to give rise to the formation, or at least to the development, of the scrofulous constitution; and this idea leads him to make some judicious observations on the mistaken principles and practices of many persons, who endeavour to cure scrofula by abstinence, supposing it to depend on an impure taint in the blood, and attempt to harden the body against cold by always keeping it at a low temperature. The following remarks, although not absolutely new, may be quoted as a favourable specimen of Dr. Southey's manner of reasoning:

'In this place it seems proper to remove some objections which are frequently made to the use of warm clothing and well heated rooms, founded upon the popular error that they render the body more obnoxious to cold. This notion is as injurious as unfounded. It has already been shown that in much colder countries than England, where rooms are better heated, and warmer clothing adopted, colds are less frequent. The Laplander and Russian quits his hut, which resembles an oven rather than a room, and travels in his sledge, breathing with impunity an atmosphere below zero. Manufacturers exposed to very high temperatures, as those employed in glass-houses, starch and paper makers, &c. are not more liable to catarrhs than others.'—

'So far from bearing cold worse, from living in a well warmed habitation, it appears that individuals so circumstanced suffer less from occasional exposure to a low temperature than those who inhabit colder dwellings. Every one must have remarked, that on quitting a warm room, to encounter a frosty atmosphere, less inconvenience is experienced than upon alighting from a cold carriage. In all those cases in which I have recommended confinement in rooms heated to 60° or 65°, I have remarked that the attendants most employed in those rooms were less subject to catarrhs than the rest of the family. It has been frequently observed that the natives of tropical climates bear their first winter in England better than their second. When the body is exhausted by fatigue, and *cooling* rapidly by profuse perspiration, a sudden exposure to cold air is highly dangerous; but bearing in mind this fact, we may state it as a general rule, that exposure to cold is less injurious when the temperature of the body is above than when it is below the natural standard. Let two men set out in a mail-coach on a cold night, the one well warmed when he takes his seat, the other shivering from cold; and at the end of a journey of 50 miles, the man who started warm will hardly have felt cold, and the other will never have been warm. Uneasy sensation is always the result of a deviation from the healthy state in some part or parts of the body, and is in all cases to be obviated if possible. Nothing therefore can be more absurd than to suppose that the endurance of a painful degree of cold for any considerable time can contribute to strengthen the constitution.'

On the cure of Consumption, when the disease is actually formed, Dr. S. offers little that is satisfactory; and in the enumeration of the remedies that have been proposed at different times, we meet with the usual round of disappointments. Altogether, if this volume does not possess any very high claim to commendation, either in its literary or its professional merits, we can recommend it as worthy of a perusal, more especially as it is tolerably concise.

ART.

ART. VII. *England at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century.* From the French of M. De Levis, Duke and Peer of France. By the Author of "A few Days in Paris." Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 400. 12s. Boards. Payne and Foss, &c. 1815.

OF the original work of the Duke de Levis, whence this volume has been translated, we took notice at some length in the Appendix to our lxxivth volume, p. 476. We attributed to the noble author an informed and sagacious mind, a philosophic impartiality of criticism, more judgment perhaps than vivacity, and an easy unaffected but not uninteresting method of description. His travels have serpentined over the whole surface, and his reading over the speculative range, of this country.

A lively preface has been furnished by the editor of the translation, in which the following biographical particulars of the author's family are given in his own words:

'"The Marshal de Levis, my father, came of a good family of Gascony: being a younger son, his patrimony was not very considerable. He first served as aide de camp to Marshal de Mirepoix. In those days, regiments were given only to the eldest sons of families of rank; because it was usual for colonels to expend more than their pay in little attentions to their officers, and in occasionally assisting them with small advances of money. By these means, they acquired esteem and consideration independent of their military rank.

'"But, setting aside conjectures, it may be remarked as a solitary instance, that the same promotion elevated Mailly and De Levis to the dignity of marshals of France, and yet the former was already a lieutenant-general, while the latter was only a captain; however, if there had been only this singularity in his military life, his name would not have appeared in these memoirs, but I have two other facts to relate, not unworthy of notice. While my father was yet young, and still serving with the Marshal de Mirepoix, these two officers compelled two battalions of the enemy to lay down their arms, merely by boldly advancing and exclaiming, "You are surrounded, down with your arms!" They were taken at their word, and the troops surrendered.

'"Some years afterwards, fortune made the Marshal de Levis pay very dear for this favour, in frustrating, by an accident, the least to be expected, an expedition, planned with equal boldness and skill. After the defeat and death of the brave but unfortunate Montcalm, he had taken command in chief of the French army in Canada. But on the fall of Quebec, M. de Levis was compelled to retire to Montreal, the capital of Upper Canada, where he established his head quarters." Here follows a minute detail of a night attack to surprise the garrison of Quebec; though boldly sketched, it terminated in the entire defeat of the assailants. "At length the war in Canada having ceased, M. de Levis was recalled to Europe, and he carried with him the regret and regard of the colonists, and even of the Indians; the love of the officer and soldier, and the

 esteem

esteem of the enemy. On his arrival in France, he was employed in the army serving in Germany, and signalized himself on several occasions; it was M. de Levis who took from the hereditary prince of Brunswick the foreign artillery which was to be seen at Chantilly before the Revolution.

'"The peace of Versailles terminated his military career, but not his services: promoted to the government of the province of Artois, he acquired the esteem of the troops, as well as that of the people. Just, and affable, he possessed the first qualities of a public man: he was every where beloved. Without being endowed with those brilliant qualities, which, while they captivate and astonish, are too often disfigured by the wanderings of a disordered imagination, or by disgusting pretensions, M. de L. possessed all the talents requisite for the most important employments: his judgment was sound, and his conception just: in society he pleased by that Languedocien gaiety, at once ingenuous and pleasing, and which gave grace and originality to the most trifling effusions. In the field, his cool bravery was contrasted with his habitual vivacity; but the most remarkable feature of his character was benevolence; to this, he joined energy and activity, without which, benevolence itself is almost useless.

'"It was sufficient to have, even, the most remote connection with him, to acquire a hold on his heart. Thus, every one, whether Languedocien, Canadian, Artoisirs, who served under him, from the colonel to the drummer, might approach him with confidence; nay more, raised to the highest dignities of the state, a duke and marshal of France, he never thought it derogatory to his rank, to appeal in person to the government, when it was to solicit in favour of the widow or orphan, nor did age or infirmity abate his zeal. The high sense he entertained of his duty accelerated his death: in spite of the remonstrances of his physicians, he set out to hold the states of Artois in 1787; the journey increased his disorder, and he died on the day fixed for the opening.

'"This assembly, the faithful organ of the province, decreed him a magnificent funeral; and erected a monument to his memory in the Cathedral of Arras. Seven years had scarcely elapsed, when that sacred edifice, where his ashes reposed, no longer existed: they were dispersed. His estates and his titles have perished;* and nothing remains of him but an unblemished reputation, and the remembrance of his glorious deeds; an honourable entail, which, "by God's help," their ancient motto, his descendants will endeavour to deserve."'

Many remarks occur, tending to ascertain the critical value of the work under contemplation. The editor himself is not entirely unknown as a writer, having given to the public "A few Days in Paris:" but his lively though somewhat pert and inaccurate diction does not pervade the whole version, he having been assisted by a friend to accelerate the process of publication.

* Louis XVIII., however, has restored the title of Duke to the family of Levis.

We

We cannot better select a specimen of the translation than from the chapter which gives an account of the benevolent institutions of London:

'I have briefly described the principal establishments in London, founded for the relief of infancy, old age, sick and wounded, lying-in-women, and lunatics; it now remains for me to speak of some benevolent institutions, whose views are more general, and who extend their relief to different classes, afflicted by a common misfortune.

'Such is the society, which delivers, annually, with equal discernment and generosity, a great number of prisoners for debt. It was established in 1772; and at the expiration of the first year, it had already liberated more than a thousand persons. In a printed statement of their proceedings, it appears that the wives of the prisoners amounted to five hundred and sixty-six, and their children, to two thousand three hundred and forty-one persons. This report produced a striking effect; the subscriptions increased; some benefactors remained unknown, and amongst them, there was one, who sent the sum of one thousand pounds sterling in a bank note (and there are some of still greater value) to one of the directors, without specifying by whom it was sent; he lost no time in bringing it to the committee, who at first declined receiving it, being fearful, that it might be a restitution, or a personal gift. This delicacy is equally honorable to the society, and to the individual. There is another institution, called The Society for Bettering the Condition of the Poor, whose object is to administer instruction and relief. They publish a very interesting periodical work, which gives an account of their proceedings, and insert memoirs relative to the important objects which engage their attention. Its views are directed by every means to perfect and ameliorate: 1. Charitable establishments, and parish workhouses; 2. Friendly Societies, of which we shall speak at the end of this chapter; 3. The building of Cottages, which several rich proprietors have given, upon certain conditions, to poor families, with the benefit of a piece of adjacent land for garden stuff; 4. Public Mills; 5. Public Shops; 6. The Instruction of Youth of both sexes; 7. The Government of Provincial Gaols; 8. Public Economical Kitchens; 9. Public Kitchens; 10. The means of diminishing the number of Beggars.

'I ought to have placed at the conclusion of the Hospitals, the Dispensaries; large apothecaries shops, where the poor are supplied with medicine and prescriptions gratis; several physicians and surgeons attend them. It is estimated, that in the eighteen Dispensaries, situated in different parts of the capital, relief is annually afforded to more than fifty thousand sick, of which, one third are attended at their own houses. The Dispensary of Carey-street alone, in the space of eight years, has furnished medicines to more than thirty thousand persons.

'It now remains for me to speak of certain societies for encouragement and repression; whose object is to attack misery and all the evils engendered in its most fruitful sources, vice and laziness; in short, to encourage the good, and to suppress the wicked. This is

doing for morals what medicine does for the body, by inoculation and other means. The most powerful aid that these societies employ, is, without doubt, religion.

'"*Dont l'empire commence ou finissent les loix.*"

'I think that no one will read, without interest, the simple enumeration of these various Societies.

'*Preservative Societies, with the Dates of their Foundations.*

	Year.
Society for promoting Christian Knowledge	1699
Society for propagating the Gospel in Foreign Parts	1701
Society for promoting Religious Knowledge among the Poor	1750
Society for prosecuting Rogues and Vagabonds	1767
Society for distributing Bibles to Soldiers and Sailors	1780
Society for encouraging Sunday Schools	1785
Society for Suppression of Vice and Immorality	1787
Society for relief of poor Clergy, distinguished by their Piety	1788
Society for encouraging good Servants	1792
Society for distributing Religious Tracts among the Poor	1795
Society for sending of Missionaries to various Parts of the Globe	1795
Society for the Instruction of Negroes in the West Indies	1795
Society for sending Missionaries into Africa	1800
Society for protecting Young Girls who arrive from the Country, against the Dangers of the Capital	1801
Society for Suppression of Vice	1804

'In the list of these Societies, there are three which appear to me to deserve particular attention; viz. those whose object is to suppress vice, and the prosecution of frauds of every description. However useful such institutions may be, they certainly could not be established in France; the national spirit opposes it: perhaps among us it may be the effects of excessive delicacy; but it is not the less true, that such prosecutions too nearly resemble denunciations, not to shock us. It must, however, be confessed that the informer, almost always excited by interest, or malice, is only odious on account of the baseness of his motives. When, on the contrary, the accusation is dictated by the love of order, and of justice; by commiseration towards the oppressed, it is no longer reprehensible. It may even be said, that it is generous to assist, gratuitously, the magistrate charged by the prince to bring to justice public delinquents.'

We are persuaded that a perusal of this work will in general gratify the native and instruct the foreigner. Adapted to counteract some of our prejudices, and to illustrate some of our excellences, it tends to bring the rank of British exertions to an agreed estimate and appreciation. Hitherto, either satire or panegyric has been too busy about us: some have decried alike, with an insulting sneer, our climate, our manners, and our monuments; and some have applauded with headlong enthu-

enthusiasm our accommodations, our institutions, and our singularities. It is time for the scales of equity to balance with gentler oscillation. Be it our part not to read the comments of so enlightened and polite a judge as M. de Levis, without a disposition to remove the corrigible imperfections of our social condition.

Sometimes, however, the reader must be on his guard against the speculative conclusions and theoretical inferences of this author, whose disposition to generalize and to advance comprehensive propositions and universal axioms is frequently carried to excess. Thus, at p. 336., he proves by a string of syllogisms that the British constitution opposes the military spirit, and forbids the production of a great General. Such arguments soon evaporate at the sound of the victory of Waterloo. — Occasionally, too, a degree of mis-statement may be detected, arising from a superficial acquaintance with the various subjects treated.

The table of contents is conveniently ample.

ART. VIII. *Hebrew Melodies.* By Lord Byron. 8vo. pp. 55. 4s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1815. (Published also with the Music, arranged, by Mr. Braham and Mr. Nathan.)

"THE Songs of Sion" once formed an object of the greatest enthusiasm among the Jews, when in the midst of captivity they considered it as the last insult of their cruel oppressors to be required to sing those strains which awakened all their patriotic recollections: but these songs were rarely secular; and perhaps they were the sacred poems of which a great part of their Scriptures consisted. Scarcely any people, however, can be named, among which no traces are to be found of a national music; and so much well-founded proof of the existence of great musical splendour in the religious ceremonies of the Jews may be adduced, that we must suppose that the pleasures of the same art have been applied to the purposes of secular amusement. Yet, on the other hand, it is surprising that so little should, at any time, have been known of this music. While the music of almost every European nation has at different periods been highly cultivated, we have never heard of Jewish Tunes, or Hebrew Melodies, (as they are now styled,) in any other sense than as the term was applied to the music performed at the Synagogues. If, therefore, Messrs. Braham and Nathan have been successful in setting the poems before us (many of which are secular, and none strictly religious,) to tunes that have real claims to nationality, still the Jews have exerted at least their usual jealousy in protecting this part of their national

tional property from an intermixture with that of the nations among whom they have been sojourners, since the dispersion of their people and the destruction of their national existence.

Whatever may be the state of the question as to the national *music* of the Jews, no doubt can be entertained of their having had a national poetry in a general or extended sense; and, though the rules of it cannot now be accurately ascertained, some idea may be formed of its character and leading features by consulting Bishop Lowth's *Prælectiones de sacrâ Poesi Hebræorum*, and his Dissertation prefixed to his translation of the prophet Isaiah. Many of the books of Scripture are indeed highly poetical; and the inspired writings comprized in that sacred volume in reality form the Hebrew school of poetry. Prior to the fame of the Greeks and the Romans for arts and letters, the best specimens of Hebrew rhythm were in existence; so that its rules of composition cannot be explained by the prosody of the Greek or the Roman muse. We know, however, that the poetry as well as the civil polity of the Israelites was altogether dependent on theological or scriptural authority. Nothing, therefore, can be more incongruous than subjects of merely ordinary poetical interest (such as auburn tresses, snowy necks, gushing tears, lingering pauses, &c. &c.) combined with those images and expressions which, from their scriptural origin, are justly intitled to rank as appropriate to the Jewish literature. This, then, has been the great difficulty with which, in the work before us, Lord Byron has had to contend; and we must confess that, in our opinion, he has not been successful in overcoming it.

It must, indeed, be objected to these *Melodies*, or songs composed for what are called Hebrew Melodies, that they are not in proper costume, — that they are not clothed in the dress of Judaism, so as to display the marked features of the Hebrew character. Before Lord Byron had undertaken the task which he here professes to execute, he should have imbued his mind with the peculiarities of the Hebrew muse, drinking deep of

——— "Siloa's brook that flow'd
Fast by the oracle of God:"

since the poetry of the Israelites differs from that of other nations not merely in its structure, but in its sentiments and modes of expression; and, unless attention be paid to these circumstances in the composition of Hebrew airs, probability will be violated and the charm of the Muse dissolved. Can we or ought we to tolerate Homeric expressions, or phrases borrowed from our modern poets, in songs supposed to have been written in Palestine, or "by the rivers of Babylon," during the Captivity?

Captivity? The epithet "King of men," applied to Agamemnon, seems quite out of its place when given to King David; and the poetic description of the grave of the Unfortunate Lady, whom Pope has immortalized by his elegy, "There the first roses of the year shall blow," is not transferable to the grave of a Hebrew damsel. These misapplications carry the mind forwards, not backwards; they are anachronisms which destroy the whole illusion, and interrupt the stage-effect. We object also to the application of the Roman term *cohort* to the army of Sennacherib, (here spelt, erroneously, Semnacherib, p. 46.) and to the introduction of a passage from the New Testament, (see p. 11.) in poems referring to events long previous to the coming of Christ. The phrase, 'in the hue of his slaughters,' (p. 44.) is not English; and in the last piece, which is given as a transcript from Job, the sense of the original is altered by Lord Byron's version:

> 'Is man more just than God? Is man more pure
> Than he who deems e'en Seraphs *insecure?*'

The word *insecure* has no more business here than the nettle on the Monk's grave. Most of all, however, were we disappointed by Lord Byron's translation of Psalm cxxxvii.; which in the original is perhaps the most beautiful elegy that was ever written in any age or language. The affecting touches and the heart-moving pathos of the Hebrew muse are lost in this English Hebrew Melody: viz.

> 'We sate down and wept by the waters
> Of Babel, and thought of the day
> When our foe, in the *hue of his slaughters,*
> Made Salem's high places his prey;
> And ye, oh her desolate daughters!
> Were scattered all weeping away.
>
> 'While sadly we gaz'd on the river
> Which roll'd on in freedom below,
> They demanded the song; but, oh never
> That triumph the stranger shall know!
> May this right hand be withered for ever,
> Ere it string our high harp for the foe!
>
> 'On the willow that harp is suspended,
> Oh Salem! its sound should be free;
> And the hour when thy glories were ended
> But left me that token of thee:
> And ne'er shall its soft tones be blended
> With the voice of the spoiler by me!'

"The Song of Zion," — "the Lord's Song in a strange Land," — and the beautiful apostrophe to Jerusalem, are all omitted in Lord B.'s version.

The

The concluding couplet in the piece intitled 'Jordan's Banks' is not superior to ordinary hymn-book versification:

> 'How long by tyrants shall thy land be trod!
> How long thy temple worshipless, Oh God!'

In fact, those specimens in this little volume which, on account of scriptural subjects or allusions, seem to possess a Hebrew character, are tame and uninteresting, because we insensibly compare them with originals of transcendant sublimity: while those which are on miscellaneous subjects disappoint us by their generality, and appear (as Johnson said of Pope's Epitaphs) like so many *Melodies to be let.* Who ever read the conclusion of the fourth chapter of Job without feeling that it is marked by the most striking grandeur: but will Lord Byron's version of it leave the same impression?

> 'A spirit pass'd before me: I beheld
> The face of Immortality unveil'd —
> Deep sleep came down on ev'ry eye save mine—
> And there it stood,—all formless—but divine:
> Along my bones the creeping flesh did quake;
> And as my damp hair stiffen'd, thus it spake:
>
> '"Is man more just than God? Is man more pure
> Than he who deems even seraphs *insecure?*
> Creatures of clay—vain dwellers in the dust!
> The moth survives you, and are ye more just?
> Things of a day! you wither ere the night,
> Heedless and blind to Wisdom's wasted light!"'

Here are two short stanzas, on a subject of the highest interest, with at least *three* weak lines, to say nothing of the obscurity of the sense in the second line of the second stanza, which is moreover (as already observed) an entire interpolation. We cannot speak more favourably of the author's version of the cxxxviith Psalm, which has been so nobly versified by Tate; nor is the treatment of the fine theme "All is vanity, &c." more successful. — The visit of Saul to the Witch of Endor is a noble subject for poetical description, and much of Lord Byron's version of it is intitled to praise: but the lines in the first stanza are harsh; and the style of the second puts us too much in mind of Gray's Descent of Odin, leading us consequently to a comparison between the Holy Scriptures and a part of Heathen Mythology, which ought not here to be made:

> 'Thou whose spell can raise the dead,
> Bid the prophet's form appear.
> "Samuel, raise thy buried head!
> King, behold the phantom seer!"
> Earth yawn'd; he stood the centre of a cloud:
> Light changed its hue, retiring from his shroud.

Death

Death stood all glassy in his fixed eye;
His hand was withered, and his veins were dry;
His foot, in bony whiteness, glittered there,
Shrunken and sinewless, and ghastly bare:
From lips that moved not and unbreathing frame,
Like cavern'd winds, the hollow accents came.
Saul saw, and fell to earth, as falls the oak,
At once, and blasted by the thunder-stroke.

" Why is my sleep disquieted?
Who is he that calls the dead?
Is it thou, Oh King? Behold
Bloodless are these limbs, and cold:
Such are mine: and such shall be
Thine to-morrow, when with me:
Ere the coming day is done,
Such shalt thou be, such thy son.
Fare thee well, but for a day;
Then we mix our mouldering clay.
Thou, thy race, lie pale and low,
Pierced by shafts of many a bow;
And the falchion by thy side,
To thy heart, thy hand shall guide:
Crownless, breathless, headless fall,
Son and sire, the house of Saul!" '

The stanzas called 'The Song of Saul before his last Battle' have not much of the characteristic dignity of the subject; which, indeed, can scarcely be well treated in dactylic measure.

These are the principal of the compositions which, as being connected with scriptural subjects, seem to possess an admissible claim to the title of *Hebrew Poems.* — The greater number of pieces have no such connection, and are considered by the author himself as of so indiscriminate a character that they are only distinguished by the first line or first words of each. Regarded as poems merely of a general cast, and laying no claim to national particularity, they are of various worth: some possessing only ordinary merit, and others displaying a high degree of the author's well known talents. We shall make a selection of a few of these for the amusement of our readers, and then, with a very few additional criticisms, conclude our remarks:

' Oh! snatched away in beauty's bloom,
On thee shall press no ponderous tomb;
But on thy turf *shall roses rear*
Their leaves, the *earliest of the year;*
And the wild cypress wave in tender gloom:

' And oft by yon blue gushing stream
Shall Sorrow lean her drooping head,
And feed deep thought with many a dream,

And

And lingering pause and lightly tread;
Fond wretch! as if her step disturb'd the dead!

'Away; we know that tears are vain,
That death nor heeds nor hears distress:
Will this *unteach* us to complain?
Or make one mourner weep the less?
And thou — who tell'st me to forget,
Thy looks are wan, thine eyes are wet.'—

'I saw thee weep — the big bright tear
Came o'er that eye of blue;
And then methought it did appear
A violet dropping dew:
I saw thee smile — the sapphire's blaze
Beside thee ceased to shine;
It could not match the living rays
That fill'd that glance of thine.

'As clouds from yonder sun receive
A deep and mellow die,
Which scarce the shade of coming eve
Can banish from the sky,
Those smiles unto the moodiest mind
Their own pure joy impart;
Their sunshine leaves a glow behind
That lightens o'er the heart.'—

'Sun of the sleepless! melancholy star!
Whose tearful beam glows tremulously far,
That show'st the darkness thou canst not dispel,
How like art thou to joy remembered well!
So gleams the past, the light of other days,
Which shines, but warms not with its powerless rays;
A night-beam Sorrow watcheth to behold,
Distinct, but distant — clear — but, oh how cold!'—

'On Jordan's banks the Arabs' camels stray,
On Sion's hill the False One's votaries pray,
The Baal-adorer bows on Sinai's steep —
Yet there — even there — Oh God! thy thunders sleep:

'There — where thy finger scorch'd the tablet stone!
There — where thy shadow to thy people shone!
Thy glory shrouded in its garb of fire:
Thyself — none living see and not expire!

'Oh! in the lightning let thy glance appear!
Sweep from his shiver'd hand the oppressor's spear:
How long by tyrants shall thy land be trod!
How long thy temple worshipless, Oh God!'

In these extracts we find something to praise and something to blame:—a considerable portion of spirit, and many of those conceits which are destructive of spirited effect;—some powerful versification, and some weak and frivolous alliteration;—some originality, and some plagiarism. We object to the word 'unteach' in the sense of *teach us not;* and 'methought it *did* appear a violet-dropping dew' is weak. We are aware that these are little more than venial blemishes; and we should perhaps forbear from insisting on them in a work of any magnitude: but, in a collection like the present, every piece is supposed to be a sort of *bijou*, in which little flaws and specks are serious objections.

The most spirited poem is 'On the Day of the Destruction of Jerusalem by Titus,' and we quote it with much pleasure:

'From the last hill that looks on thy once holy dome,
I beheld thee, Oh Sion! when rendered to Rome:
'Twas thy last sun went down, and the flames of thy fall
Flash'd back on the last glance I gave to thy wall.

'I look'd for thy temple, I look'd for my home,
And forgot for a moment my bondage to come;
I beheld but the death-fire that fed on thy fane,
And the fast-fettered hands that made vengeance in vain.

'On many an eve, the high spot whence I gazed
Had reflected the last beam of day as it blazed;
While I stood on the height, and beheld the decline
Of the rays from the mountain that shone on thy shrine.

'And now on that mountain I stood on that day,
But I mark'd not the twilight beam melting away;
Oh! would that the lightning had glared in its stead,
And the thunderbolt burst on the conqueror's head!

'But the Gods of the Pagan shall never profane
The shrine where Jehovah disdain'd not to reign;
And scatter'd and scorn'd as thy people may be,
Our worship, Oh Father! is only for thee.'

Here also the dactylic metre is an objection, and we wish that our ears were less offended by alliteration: but the general effect is both impassioned and chaste.

It is proper to observe that Lord Byron, in a short preface, mentions that this is not a work of his own choice, but was undertaken at the request of a friend. Under such circumstances, a poet is intitled to some indulgence: but, making every allowance for the restraint thus occasioned, our opinion on the whole is that the publication is not calculated to advance his Lordship's high poetic fame.

ART.

ART. IX. *Narrative of Joseph Samuel C. F. Frey*, with an Address to Christians of all Denominations, in Behalf of the Descendants of Abraham. Second Edition. 12mo. Gale and Co.

MR. FREY is certainly a singular and interesting character; and, as a descendant of Abraham embracing the Christian faith, he has obtained considerable notice in this country. The literary world are also under no small obligations to him for his new and beautiful edition of Van der Hooght's Hebrew Bible; an edition which he is executing with indefatigable industry, and which will transmit his name to posterity, though he has modestly abstained from the mention of this undertaking in the narrative before us. While, however, we are cordially disposed to give him full credit for sincerity and zeal in the cause of the Gospel, we cannot altogether approve the style in which these memoirs are written; nor can we think that he has adopted the most judicious course in his appeal to the Jews. How far he is strictly correct in the representation of his "brethren according to the flesh," we have not the means of fully ascertaining: but when he tells us (p. 5.) that 'those *Haphtoroth*, (or sections or lessons out of the prophets,) which speak the plainest respecting the Messiah, are left out in the reading of the Scriptures by the modern Jews, and particularly that the liiid chapter of Isaiah is *skipped over*,' he brings to our recollection a publication intitled "The Constancy of Israel," by Solomon Bennett, a Polish Jew, in which this assertion is flatly denied; and in which, as it now appears to us, Mr. Bennett sneers at Mr. Frey for this representation, which he has elsewhere given. We shall not quote the contemptuous terms by which Mr. B. designates this convert from Judaism: but it may be proper, for the sake of obtaining the matter of fact, to restate his averment, in opposition to that of the author of the present narrative. "I testify," says Mr. Bennett, (see p. 34. note,) "that I never heard of such a prohibition; yet there is some truth in it, that the Jews (*i. e.* English) do neither read this chapter nor the whole Bible: novels and romances being so much more to their taste than their sacred records, that they scarcely comprehend their common Hebrew prayers; but *with respect to the innumerable Israelites throughout our dispersion, to my knowledge they read, understand*, and reflect on it also." To the English Jews, Mr. Bennett is not very civil; and, as far as they are concerned, he seems to allow that Mr. Frey has not misrepresented them: but the great majority of the Israelites he rescues from Mr. Frey's charge, and boldly affirms their perfect acquaintance with the liiid chapter of Isaiah. Other particulars, which we have not room to mention, specified in Mr. Bennett's book, (published in London in 1809, and noticed in M. R. Vol. lxviii.

lxviii. N.S. p. 396.) are completely at variance with Mr. Frey's representations; and which, for the purpose of turning the Jews from "the error of their ways," the author of this narrative should have combated. Instead, however, of maintaining the correctness of the Nazarene comments, as the followers of Moses call our strictures on their law and prophets, in opposition to those of the Rabbis, Mr. Frey, after having informed us of the horrid terms in which he was taught, when a child, to speak of our blessed Saviour, adopts a kind of style, in relating the circumstances of his birth, education, and conversion, &c. which we will honestly say is not much adapted to our taste. He tells us that he was born, or, as he expresses it, 'was favoured by God with the light of this world,' Sept. 21. 1771, at Maynstockheim, in Franconia; in which country his father was for nineteen years a private tutor in a Jewish family, and, being devoted to the study of the Scriptures and the traditions of the elders, became their *Morah Tzedek*, or religious conductor. Having such a parent, versed in all the niceties of tradition, as well as of the ceremonies of the law, the subject of this memoir was regularly circumcised on the eighth day, according to custom, receiving the name of *Joseph Samuel*, and became early instructed in the Pentateuch and Talmud.

'Before I was' (says Mr. F.) 'three years old I began the Hebrew alphabet, and when but six years of age I could perfectly read any chapter of the five books of Moses.'—

'When I was nine years old, the holy book of God was shut up and laid aside, and in its stead the productions of men, as the Mishnah, Gemarah, &c. were brought forth and eagerly studied by me in succession, with fresh pleasure and satisfaction, for they were nourishment to my earthly and sensual affections, and fuel to my corrupt heart; and thus was I for four years longer absorbed in vain speculations, spending my strength for nought. On the first Sabbath after I was thirteen years and a day old, I read in the synagogue, according to custom, the section of the law appointed for the day, which happened to be the second, called *Noach*.

'When a Jewish boy has arrived at the age of thirteen years and a day, he is considered a man, fit to be one of the ten necessary to constitute a full number for public worship. He is now obliged to observe the precepts for himself, and is no longer considered under the power of his father. He is also accounted of age to manage business, and his contracts are valid. I was now arrived at that period of life in which it is usual with the Jews to decide, whether a person will engage in business, or qualify himself farther for any religious office. Having chosen the latter, I continued five years longer in the study of the Talmud and its various commentators.'

As Mr. F. was so thoroughly qualified for arguing with the Jews on their own ground, and detecting their false glosses, we could have wished that he had employed more *argumenta ad hominem*: but, we know not for what reasons, he follows a dif-

ferent course. When he was eighteen, he acted for himself in the capacity of a tutor at Hesse; for which service, in addition to board and lodging, he received sixteen guineas per annum. 'Thus,' says he, (but we wish that he had not said it, for never was Scripture quoted more *mal-a-propos*,) 'I thought myself "rich, and encreased with goods, and had need of nothing, not knowing that I was wretched, and miserable, and poor, and blind, and naked." Rev. iii. 17.'

At the age of twenty-one, the author read in the synagogue the public prayers and the law of Moses; and so anxious was he to recommend himself among his brethren, that he says,

'I spent a whole year in obtaining the knowledge of the Jewish method of preparing the knife for killing fowls or beasts, and of the nature of the lungs. None but those who have learned these ceremonies can judge how difficult they are to be acquired, so as to be master of them all.

'At length I likewise obtained this degree of honour by the consent of the then presiding Rav or Rabbi, of Hesse Castle. In the use of these ceremonious observances I was extremely strict, although not one of them is to be found expressed in the whole book of God, but they are only a *few* of the innumerable, vain, and extremely burdensome traditions received of the fathers. O blessed Jesus! thy yoke is easy, and thy burden is light, for by thee the weary and heavy laden find rest. Happy, thrice happy those who are brought into the holy liberty of thy glorious and everlasting Gospel.'

This apostrophe in this place might have been spared, because we are not come to the period of the writer's conversion.

Resolving to ramble, Mr. F. visited several places in Germany; and, accidentally meeting with a Christian who was a traveller for a tobacco-manufactory at Hamburgh, a conversation ensued, which first led him to a change of sentiment; — a change which seems to have been very sudden, and is strangely expressed:

'I stayed at the same inn with my Christian friend. My soul was disquieted within me all the night. Early in the morning my friend went into the city on his business. Soon after he was gone, all that he had said to me came suddenly into my mind with great force, and his kind and affectionate behaviour had such an influence on my mind, that I immediately sat down and wrote a letter to him, intimating I would travel in his company to Berlin, in order to enquire into the truth of Christianity. Having written this letter and sealed it, I left it for him in the inn, and went into the synagogue without thinking for a moment on the great sin which I had committed (according to the Jewish traditions) in writing and sealing a letter on the Sabbath day.

'On my return from the synagogue, I was informed that my Christian friend had left the place, and since that time I have never had the pleasure of seeing him. My conscience was now awakened, and it loudly told me that I was no longer a Jew, for that I had broken the Sabbath.

'Hitherto

'Hitherto I had been a self-righteous Pharisee in my own estimation, but now it pleased God to take at once every plea of merit from me, by convincing me of this one single sin. Now I found the truth of those words, "A wounded spirit who can bear?"'

The next chapter relates the time and place at which he embraced the Christian religion, and gives an account of his being apprenticed to a shoe-maker. We must pass over his difficulties and hardships in this situation, to relate in his own words the particulars of his baptism, and of his obtaining an addition to his name:

'On the 8th of May, 1798, I was baptized publicly, and received as a member of the church. It has always been the custom, that at the baptism of a Jew some respectable persons should stand godfathers, who make him many presents; but I refused to receive any, as another proof that I did not embrace Christianity for the sake of worldly gain. It is also a practice in Germany, and which has been of long standing, for a converted Jew to receive new names when baptized; therefore, upon this occasion, the minister having preached from John, viii. 32. 36. "And ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you *free*. If the Son therefore shall make you *free*, ye shall be *free* indeed;" he gave me for a new sirname *Frey*, which signifies the same as *free* in English, but in the German language it is pronounced like *Fry*. Many in this country, attending more to the signification than to the spelling of my name, pronounce it generally as if written *Free*. He likewise added to my former name of Joseph Samuel, the names of *Christian Frederick*, the former expressive of the religion I embraced, the latter of his good wishes, namely, that I might be rich in peace.'

Without detailing those occurrences in Germany which are mentioned as contributing to Mr. Frey's farther acquaintance with Divine truth, it will be sufficient briefly to state that, in consequence of his Christian connections, he was recommended to the Missionary Society at Berlin; that, after some education designed to qualify him for the office of a missionary, he was sent in 1801, with two others, to England, for the purpose of proceeding to join the venerable Dr. Vander Kemp, at the Cape of Good Hope; that he was detained in this country as a person singularly fitted to promote the conversion of the Jews; and that his labours, though not crowned with the desired success, have not been wholly in vain.

Of the long address to Christians in behalf of the Jews, with which this little pamphlet concludes, we shall take no other notice than to remark that, as Mr. Frey owns himself (see p. 79.) to be 'well acquainted with the peculiar objections of the Jews against the Christian religion,' we lament that he has not chosen particularly to combat them, rather than to amuse us by the vague and unmeaning assertion that 'the

Jews believe in the transmigration of the soul, as efficacious to procure pardon and reconciliation for sin.' In short, we must earnestly advise a recomposition of the whole of Mr. F.'s narrative, for the express purpose of giving his controversy with his brethren a more argumentative form, and in order to render it a publication which the rational part of the Christian world may peruse with satisfaction. We pass now to a work which will contribute more to Mr. Frey's literary reputation.

ART. X. שַׁעַר הָרִאשׁוֹן אֶל לָשׁוֹן הַקֹּדֶשׁ

סֵפֶר הַדִּקְדּוּק בְּלָשׁוֹן עִבְרִי וּבָאַנְגְלִישׁ:

A Hebrew Grammar, in the English Language, by Joseph Samuel C. F. Frey, Editor of Vander Hooght's Hebrew Bible. 8vo. pp. 192. 10s. 6d. Boards. Gale and Co.

EVERY person, who is desirous of obtaining a knowlege of the Old Testament, must thankfully receive a Hebrew Grammar published by one who has been educated as a Jew: because such a person can ascertain two very important circumstances, of which Christian divines are generally ignorant; viz. in what way the Rabbis teach the language of their sacred books to their youth, and, in the next place, how they pronounce it. Those who, with Mascleff, Parkhurst, and others, reject the vowel-points, will perhaps demur to being put into Jewish leading-strings: but it is to be considered, on the other hand, that, as a dead language, the Hebrew cannot be read without the vowel-points; and that, for instance, no good authority can be adduced for pronouncing the common name for God *Aleim*, instead of Elohim, for which the enemies of the points contend. To the anti-punctuists, Mr. Frey addresses himself in his preface; and it is reasonable to suppose that the Jews are best acquainted with the legitimate pronunciation of their own language. At all events, it is worth our while to ascertain *how* they pronounce it; because, if we are to quote Hebrew in conversation with the Jews, we should be able to pronounce it so as not to disgust them.

To promote a general acquaintance with the Old Testament, in the original tongue, is the object of the present work; which, we are informed, was originally composed for the instruction of the students of the Rev. D. Bogue's Missionary Seminary at Gosport, to which Mr. Frey was sent soon after his arrival in England, in order to be qualified for preaching to his brethren of the circumcision in the metropolis. It is now

now revised and enlarged; and Mr. F.'s object has also been to render it *simple* and yet *comprehensive*.

'From the office of Hebrew teacher, which the author sustained amongst his own nation, and from the numerous pupils he has since had amongst Christians, he has had opportunities of trying and altering the rules as long as the pupils met with any difficulty, and he humbly hopes he has, in some measure, succeeded in opening a way to obtain the knowledge of this most ancient and sacred language, in less time, and with far less difficulty and perplexity than any other language, whether ancient or modern. This Grammar is divided into distinct chapters, and each chapter followed by exercises according to the preceding rules, that practice and theory might go hand in hand. And to make the student perfect in the right pronunciation of the language, the author has given the pronunciation of the Hebrew words in English throughout the work.'

As in the common grammars, the power of the Hebrew letters is here shewn by corresponding Roman letters: but *Aleph* and *Ayin* Mr. Frey has not attempted to express by these means. The pronunciation of the sacred tetragrammaton יְהוָה is thus exhibited, '*Ye-ho-wah*.' In other grammars, the *Tseri* or *Tzai-ray* (◌ֵ) is directed to be sounded as the Greek η, but Mr. Frey sounds it *ay*, as in the word *hay*. It is an excellence of the present Grammar that the Hebrew words, expressive of the different parts of the language, are given in English: but the meaning of these terms, as in Bythner's and other grammars, should also be subjoined. In chap. ii. § 3. we have דָּגֵשׁ *Da-gesh*, which gives us sound without sense*. Bythner adds that *Dagesh* comes from a Chaldee word which signifies to *puncture*, or is a point in the body of a letter; and in this way the sense of every term, when it first occurs, should be explained. Buxtorf, in his *Thesaurus Grammaticus*, gives three modes of writing Hebrew; the first is the Biblical; the second, that which is adopted by the Spanish and Italian Jews; and the third, that which is in use among the German Jews. As Mr. Frey was born in Germany, we should have supposed that he would have afforded a specimen of the German Hebrew characters.—The tables of Accents and Particles are very complete; and the Reading Lessons in Exercise ix. will shew how differently Hebrew is read by Jewish and by Christian scholars.† According

* We observe that Mr. F. is not uniform in giving the sound of Hebrew words; for he calls the ◌ָ or *long a*, in his first account of the vowel-points, *Ka-maitz*, but at p. 27. he writes the word in the usual way *Kametz*.

† We transcribe three different modes of reading the first verse of the book of Genesis. The first is taken from Origen's Hexapla,

According to Bythner, the *litera Heemanti* (expressed by this *vocabulum artis*) are הֵאָמְנָתִי: but Mr. Frey increases them by the addition of a ן, terming them the *Heemantiv* letters.

At p. 31., speaking of nouns so related to each other as to require the preposition *of* between them, Mr. Frey points out the peculiarity of the Hebrew language in this particular, by observing that 'the former is *governed* and undergoes a change;' and he then adds, 'these nouns are said to be *in regimine*, or *contracted*:' but should he not have said *in construction*, or *in statu constructo?* It is true that he gives instances of contraction when nouns are *in regimine:* but the rule of regimen expresses the relation of these nouns to each other, or their being constructed or framed together.

In the chapter intitled, פּוֹעַל *Po-ail*, or the *Verb*, Mr. Frey differs from all the grammarians by remarking that 'in the Hebrew language, correctly speaking, is but *one* conjugation, called בִּנְיָן Binyan:' but this simplicity disappears when he adds that this one conjugation 'has seven significations, which are distinguished from each other by different names and characteristic marks:' that is to say, the student has seven different formulæ to learn in the conjugation of Hebrew verbs. 'The Pa-al or Kal, Pi-ail, and Hiphil, are active; Niph-al, Pu-al, and Hoph-al, are passive; and Hith-pa-ail is both active and passive.' On this ground, Mr. F. disputes the propriety of calling these seven modes of forming the Hebrew verbs, *Conjugations;* 'no one,' says he, 'ever supposed that *Amo* and *Amor* are different conjugations, why then should the active and passive in Hebrew be styled so?' We should have pleasure in this refinement, if it could shorten the labour or relieve the memory of the scholar. — The directions for the formation of verbs through all their voices, modes, and tenses, are minutely given; and this part of the Grammar manifests the author's critical acquaintance with the language which he professes to teach. — In short, though we would not recommend this as superseding the use of other grammars, especially to the classical scholar, but would rather advise it to be compared with the best of those that are written in Latin, yet we must

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by Montfaucon, in which the Hebrew is expressed in Greek letters; the second is from Parkhurst's Grammar prefixed to his Lexicon; and the third from Mr. Frey's Grammar, Exercise ix.

1. Βρησιθ βαρα ελωημ ηθ ασαμαιμ ναθ ααρες.
2. Berasit bara aleim at esmim uat earej.
3. Be-rai-shith ba-ra E-lo-him aith hash-sha-ma-yim we-aith ha-a-fetz.

remark that Mr. Frey's mode of teaching the Hebrew is very masterly; that it is singularly calculated to facilitate the student's intimate knowlege of that language; and that it makes us acquainted with the process adopted by the Rabbis in the education of Jewish youth.—The Hebrew Psalter, or Book of Psalms, called ספר תהלים, or *Book of Praises*, is subjoined to this Grammar, which considerably augments its value.

Mr. Frey has advertised a series of *Hebrew Exercises*, which will form an useful supplement to his Grammar; and we advise him to mark, in a subsequent edition, the places from which he has taken the several lessons and exercises given in his Grammar.

ART. XI. *A Hebrew, Latin, and English Dictionary;* containing 1. all the Hebrew and Chaldee Words used in the Old Testament, including the proper Names, arranged under one Alphabet, with the Derivatives referred to their proper Roots, and the Signification, in Latin and English, according to the best Authorities. 2. The principal Words in the Latin and English Languages, with those which correspond to them in Hebrew. By Joseph Samuel C. F. Frey. Parts I. and II. 8vo. 8s. each, common Paper, and 12s. each on Royal Paper, *to Subscribers.* Gale and Co. &c.

No doubt can be entertained of the utility of such a work as this to the Hebrew student, if duly executed; and we are obliged to Mr. Frey for the attempt which he has made: but we must take the liberty of saying that we wish it had been more complete; and we trust that he will not be offended if we suggest a hint or two for his direction in this respect. We are aware of the value of a vocabulary which contains every word that occurs in the Hebrew Bible, with its root placed in an adjoining column: but it is desirable at the same time to have a reference to the book, chapter, and verse in which each word in question is to be found. It may not be necessary, in words of frequent use, to specify every text: but, when words occur only once, twice, or thrice, this is a circumstance which ought to be noticed. It would also greatly augment the utility of this Dictionary, if the words in the Greek Septuagint, corresponding to those of the Hebrew, were given in the third column, with the Latin version. The author is in a degree justified when he remarks that 'some dictionaries contain so much superfluous criticism, that, in seeking for the meaning of a word, the student is frequently bewildered in a maze of extraneous matter:' but we must observe that, in the present instance, the compiler has erred in the opposite extreme; and that his Dictionary, or rather *Vocabulary*, is too meagre, and, for

want of references, too naked and unsatisfactory.—Never were critics more friendly to any undertakings than we are to these of Mr. Frey; and we shall be much gratified if, in the subsequent numbers of the present work, he adopts our suggestions, or even a part of them.

As it may be the wish of some of our readers to peruse Mr. Frey's plan in his own words, we shall transcribe the following account of it from the Advertisement prefixed to Part I.

'In other Dictionaries the derivative words are ranged under their respective roots*, so that persons who are not well acquainted with the rules for separating the serviles from the roots, are often at a loss where to find the word which they want: in this, both roots and derivatives being arranged under *one* alphabet, a person who is merely acquainted with the letters may turn at once to any word in the language.

'Every derivative is inserted with all its prefixes and affixes, and its root in the parallel column, as, from אֲאָזְרֵךְ אזר: if the word wanted be a root, it must be sought in the alphabetical order of the *derivatives*, and it will be found in the column of roots; as the root אָבַד page 1. stands in the column of roots, next after the word אֲבָנֶיהָ in the column of derivatives.

'Where any derivative is from the same root as the word immediately preceding it, the root is not repeated, but its place is supplied by a line.

'There are many Hebrew roots which are out of use, and the signification of which is uncertain, but they are retained in all Dictionaries on account of the words derived from them. Such roots are here printed in open letters, as אבב.

'With a view to bring the work within as moderate limits as possible, the author has frequently put into one line two words which are similar in sense, but which differ, either in the points, as אֶבְרָת אֶבְרָה; or in the gender, as אֶבְרָתָ אֶבְרָתִ; or in one of the letters, as אוֹעָרוֹת אוֹעָדֹת אֲבוֹשׁ אֲבוּשָׁה: and such words are, in many instances, abbreviated, either in the beginning, as --יַל בָּנוֹים בָּנוֹ--; or at the end, as אֲבִיגַיִל

'This work also contains all the proper names found in the Old Testament. These and such words which are composed only of a preposition and an affix pronoun, as בִּי in me, have no root opposite.

'Where there is a marginal reading different from the text, such difference is denoted by an open letter, as בְּכִים'

'* This remark will apply to every Dictionary or Lexicon the author has seen, except one which he has lately met with, and the plan of which he has the pleasure of finding in many respects similar to his own,—*Lexicon Heb. Chald. Lat. Biblic. Dom. Passionei. 2 Tom. fol. Avenion.* 1765.'

'The author has given the significations in the most plain and concise manner *according to the best authorities.*

'Those Lexicons, small as well as large, which any person versed in Hebrew could with the greatest propriety recommend to the student, are in Hebrew and Latin only, and their use is consequently confined to those who have previously acquired a knowledge of Latin. The present Dictionary is adapted for all who understand either Latin or English.'

'According to the best authorities' is a vague expression, and not sufficiently explanatory: in some instances, if not in every one, the precise authorities should have been specified.

We shall only add that Mr Frey purposes to include this Dictionary in 12 parts, or numbers: but, should he improve on his original scheme, and extend the work to 15 or even 20 numbers, his subscribers and the public would, we are persuaded, feel no inclination to complain, if he makes his Dictionary what it ought to be, and what it certainly is not in its present shape.

ART. XII. *The Legend of the Velvet Cushion*, in a Series of Letters to my Brother Jonathan, who lives in the Country. By Jeremiah Ringletub. 8vo. pp. 322. 6s. 6d. Boards. Williams and Co. 1815.

"To recriminate is just, Lorenzo:" but recrimination, unless conducted with temper and discretion, will in general fail of accomplishing its object. We were fully aware that, soft as the exterior of "The Velvet Cushion" appeared to the careless observer, some stiff and sharp hairs of the stuffing would be found to come through the pile; and that some hands would be sadly irritated and annoyed by them. It was therefore no matter of surprise to us that one person endeavoured, without loss of time, to provide *a Cover* for Mr. Cunningham's velvet; and that another, as in the present instance, should proceed "with force and arms" to tear out the stuffing and strive to beat it to atoms. The author before us, indeed, seemingly approving the title which we gave to Mr. C.'s novel, viz. The Protestant *Legend*, thinks that he is justified in treating it as legends ought to be treated; and, with the warmth of a polemic of the old school, he endeavours to give Mr. C. a Rowland for his Oliver. Armed *cap à pié*, as a Protestant Dissenter, he therefore, under the fictitious name of Ringletub, takes the field against the Vicar of Harrow, and hurls against him the most undaunted defiance. Wherever Mr. C. had laid himself open, Mr. Ringletub aims a thrust; and, being well versed in the dispute carried on between the advocates of our national establishment and those who have erected the banner of dissent, he has in some points a manifest advantage over Mr. C.: who seems not to have made himself sufficiently acquainted with the grounds of

of non-conformity. It is to be lamented, however, that Mr. Ringletub* manifests a desire of irritating as well as of reasoning, and that he too roughly attacks the character of the clergy as well as the principles of their church. Nothing can be fairer, when Mr. C. declares that he "likes nothing new in religion, new translations, new doctrines, or new systems," than that his antagonist should ask him, 'if, in spite of uniformity, Latimer and Ridley had not liked new translations, doctrines, and systems, where would the reformed church have been?': but we cannot hold him excusable for his gross and sweeping attack on the character of our established clergy as a body, when it is evident that he cannot speak from an extensive personal knowlege of them. How could he have the temerity to make the following assertion? 'It is a notorious and incontrovertible fact, that whatever the clergy *for the most part may be*, as scholars and gentlemen, *they disclaim all idea of spiritual religion*, enter on their holy profession without even a superficial acquaintance with sacred literature, and with no other view than to enjoy learned leisure, or to spend their time as mere men of the world, *without any serious reference to eternity.*' (p. 117.) This is surely a calumny which cannot assist this enraged Dissenter's argument, and might have been spared when he afterward confesses, (p. 124.) that 'the fault is more in the system than in the men.' On the system, indeed, he animadverts with unusual freedom: but, as we mean not to be a party in the controversy now stirred up afresh between Conformists and Non-conformists, we abstain from a detailed notice of the strictures here made on "The Velvet Cushion;" only remarking that the writer before us displays ability with his zeal, shews himself throughout to be quite at home on every topic which he discusses, and carries on his warfare against the established church not so much on account of her doctrines as her secular constitution and power: since he avows himself a Calvinist, and speaks of Unitarianism as 'the dicta of that heresiarch Socinus,' readily espoused by rich persons. He often replies to the charges which "The Velvet Cushion" brings against the Puritans, with a kind of dry humour which is one of his happiest STYLES of warfare, and at the same time no bad specimen of his ability:

'The Cushion complains of the Puritans, "that their scheme of religion, in some instances, spoiled their tempers. I do indeed heartily commend their abstinence from vicious or dissipating amusements; but surely cheerfulness is not a crime. That God,

* This is evidently a feigned name, but it bears a close similarity to that of Mr. Ringeltaube, a German missionary in India.

who

who is 'our Father,' must love to see his creatures happy. If, then, instead of perpetual fasting and 'will worship,' they had gone abroad among the glories of nature; if they had refreshed their spirits by a commerce with science and art, I think by the mercy of God, they would have become happier themselves, and therefore less jealous of the happiness of others, they would have shaken off the dew of their comforts on all around them."

'It is rather remarkable, that the Cushion of a truly spiritual church should represent fasting to be "will worship;" that is, worship that God Almighty does not require, for which there is no warrant in the New Testament, and which is founded on some authority independent of the exclusive sovereignty of Jesus Christ. As to the degree of fasting, that is left to the choice of every individual; the general duty only is enforced: but here is a Cushion which annuls the obligation to the general duty, when its own church determines what Christ has left free, namely, the times and seasons for fasting. If the Puritans were led to fall into the extreme opposite to that of cheerfulness, and if their tempers were soured, let us not unjustly ascribe it to their own system of religion, but to the circumstances in which they were placed. Their only refuge from sorrow was "a God who is our Father;" exposed to licentiousness and profligacy, sanctioned by law on the one side, and to the terrors of persecution on the other, it is not wonderful if their faces indicated something like gloom. Does it not a little savour of unkindness, to persecute and ruin men, and then reproach them for not being merry. "They that wasted us required of us mirth." Set the Five Mile Act to music: Shut them up in prison, and then censure them for not going abroad among the glories of nature. Deprive them of every thing, and say they are jealous of the happiness of others; load them with chains, and revile them with not shaking off "the dew of their comforts." However, they were not so dismally gloomy, but that their wit could delight their friends, and their satire electrify their enemies, and both astonish posterity.'

To another remark of the aforesaid Cushion on the subject of popery, the reply is made with more gravity:

'"For my part, (says the Cushion,) though I have no fondness for popery, I honour the little harmless relics of it which I see in our church *as so many monuments of the moderation of my forefathers.*"

'That the early Reformers should deem such moderation necessary is not to be doubted; but however necessary it might be at first, that necessity surely did not exist at the Restoration; the spirit of popery was then utterly broken. Was no moderation due to the conscientious scruples of thousands of Non-conformists? To establish these "harmless relics" against the voice of the nation, the first Charles was guilty of shedding torrents of innocent blood, and to prove the moderation of the second Charles by enforcing the same relics, two thousand ministers were deprived of their livings, and a persecution raised by which not less than ten thousand are supposed to have perished in imprisonment and want. So much for moderation.'

Against

Against our national church as a mere secular establishment, this Mr. Ringletub with all his might discharges his whole quiver of objections; and, not satisfied with assailing it, at all corners, by every mode of attack, he finishes with predicting its 'destruction before many years have transpired.' He takes indeed but one side of the question: but, as he argues in a way that is calculated to gain attention, his letters require to be properly noticed; and we conclude that some able clergyman will take up the cudgels, in behalf of good mother-church, against this doughty champion of dissent.

On the impropriety of the phrase, to which we ourselves have formerly objected, *Constitution in Church and State*, the remarks of this writer merit particular notice. We quote the passage:

'It is sufficiently evident from the manner in which the term "constitution" is introduced, that the church is identified with it, or considered as forming one of its essential parts. Those who embrace this notion are generally led to imagine that all who are not members of the church by law established, are in some sense or other enemies to the constitution. Thus the artfully constructed phrase, "church and king," was employed a few years since with no mean success to infuriate the populace, who were taught to believe that attachment to the king was to be measured by an hatred to Dissenters. It is, however, not accurate to speak of a constitution in church and state, as if the church were half the state, or as if the British constitution consisted of two independent empires in alliance. Because the truth is, the executive power distributes the religion of the state by the clergy exactly as the same executive power distributes the wealth, the protection, and the law of the state, by other classes of state officers. We do not say constitution in law and state, or in army and state, or in exchequer and state, for all these are creatures of state, branches of civil government; and such is the church. The church, then, Jonathan, may be considered as one of the children of the state, over which the state has all the weight of parental authority, and may improve, alter, or amend, as circumstances require. Dissatisfaction with the church implies no dislike to the constitution, nor is dissent to be viewed as injurious to the church. As an ordinance of the civil power, we only do not choose to enrol ourselves among its members: as a merchant does not choose to belong to the army or the navy; he is not therefore an enemy to either. If the necessity of defending their principles and conduct imposes upon the Dissenters the ungrateful task of laying open the radical evils and unscriptural character of that establishment from which they are obliged to separate, the blame, if any, ought assuredly to fall on those with whom that necessity originates. It is not a little to the honour of the Dissenters, that they are never the first in this controversy. Of late years all their energies have been devoted to the glorious cause of the Bible, and the extension of religious knowledge, both in their own country, and throughout the world. They have sought union rather than separation; and a favourite maxim with many of them

has

has been, "to conform where we can; to dissent only where we must." Their ministers, imagining that they have seen something like the dawning of liberality in the minds of the clergy, have delighted to hail them as brethren. A snappish and intolerant pamphlet has sometimes appeared to annoy them, and provoking sarcasms and gross misrepresentations in some of the most popular literary journals have excited the smile of pity, and occasionally the sneer of contempt. So long have they been silent on the subject of their reasons for dissent, that their enemies almost believe they have none to urge. To repeated challenges from the high-mettled, well-fed sons of the hierarchy, who have endeavoured to divert their attention from the labour of doing good on the grand principle of universal charity, they have replied in the language of Nehemiah to the crafty Sanballat: — "I am doing a great work, so that I cannot come down; why should the work cease, whilst I leave it and come down to you?" But openly assailed as they now are in the Preface to the Velvet Cushion, and covertly wounded, misrepresented, and traduced in its subsequent pages, one of their number turns aside for a moment to shield and defend his brethren; to explain their views on the subject of religious liberty, and to exhibit their objections to incorporated secular establishments in general, and to the church of England in particular. A tone of independence well becomes a man who, in early life, claimed the privilege of thinking for himself, who was never shackled by subscription to human creeds, and who is awed by no authority but the Holy Book. Reason is his guide, but not his lord. Scripture is that voice of God which is full of majesty, and he must implicitly obey it. If the civil magistrate and the Bible issue contrary edicts, — he pauses, he regrets the necessity imposed on him to make an election where he would be happy to acknowledge both; but at the suggestion of conscience he acts the part of a loyal subject to his Master in heaven, and his sovereign upon earth; "he renders unto Cæsar the things which are Cæsar's, and unto God the things that are God's."'

We suspect that these letters proceed from the pen of a dissenting minister, and he will perceive by one word in this article that we guess at his real name: but, if he be a fair specimen of that "illiteracy" which the Cushion assigns to dissenting ministers, they must not be considered as contemptible adversaries; and it will be advisable in future to turn out none but men of sound learning and vigorous intellect to oppose them.

ART. XIII. *The Journal of a Mission to the Interior of Africa*, in the Year 1805, by Mungo Park. Together with other Documents, official and private, relating to the same Mission. To which is prefixed, An Account of the Life of Mr. Park. 4to. pp. 360. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1815.

EXCEPTING the interior of the vast peninsula of Africa, every part of our globe has been explored. Travellers have crossed the southern, northern, and intermediate portions of

of the extensive American Continent: but the central districts of Africa still remain a *terra incognita*. Reports of populous cities in this region have excited our curiosity: but no European has ever visited them; and we are acquainted with the names of rivers of which we know not either the source or the termination. Some of our old and steady readers, who have done us the honour of accompanying us through our now very protracted labours, may recollect our first notice of the commendable efforts of the African Association, in the second volume of our New Series; where we applauded the zeal of this Society, so nobly displayed for the purpose of extending geographical knowlege, and gave an account of the labours and perils of Messrs. Ledyard and Lucas, who were first sent out in 1788 to attempt to penetrate into the interior districts of Africa. The result of their researches, and the proceedings of the Society, were printed in the year 1790: but the expectations of the public were more raised than gratified; Mr. Ledyard's progress having been arrested by death, while Mr. Lucas, who reached no farther than Mesurata, told us rather what was probably to be seen than what he actually saw. Still he related enough to convince the Association that their object was not to be abandoned, and that much might be brought to light by subsequent missions.

The public are therefore highly indebted to the Society for the perseverance with which they have prosecuted their object; and the spirited enterprises of Mr. Mungo Park, performed under their direction and patronage in the years 1795, 6,7, (see our account of his Travels, M. R. Vol xxix. N. S. p. 241.) excited a general interest in African discoveries, which his subsequent efforts and untimely fate have served not a little to increase. We shall not be satisfied till some European has visited the city of Tombuctoo, and actually ascertained how far the reports of its vast population and commerce are in unison with facts. Great preparations, indeed, are said to be making for an expedition to this central spot of the African Continent: but several years must elapse before we are made acquainted with its result. In the mean time, it will be some gratification to see how much has been accomplished, to peruse the short and imperfect notices of Mr. Park's last mission, and to sympathize with the country on the loss of a man who was so well fitted for the arduous task which was assigned to him. It must not, however, be concealed that the present volume, intended to meet the wishes of the public, affords information far short of those ardent expectations which some have entertained: yet it is something to have genuine documents laid before us; and we are obliged to the editor for the clear account of the materials of which it is composed.

The

The Advertisement states that

'The original documents relating to Mr. Mungo Park's last mission into Africa having been entrusted to the Directors of the African Institution by the secretary of state for the colonial department, with liberty to publish them, in case they should deem it expedient; the Directors now avail themselves of this permission, by publishing the papers for the benefit of Mr. Park's family.

'These documents, together with other papers furnished by Mr. Park's connections and friends, which also form a part of the present publication, consist of the following particulars:

'1. The original journal of the expedition, officially transmitted by Mr. Park to the secretary of state; containing several of Mr. Park's drawings and sketches, illustrative of particular descriptions, which are copied in this publication.

'2. The journal, as translated from the Arabic language, in which it was originally composed, of Isaaco, a native African, commissioned in the year 1810, by the governor of Senegal, to go in search of Mr. Park and ascertain his fate; which journal was likewise officially transmitted to the secretary of state.

'3. A memoir delivered by Mr. Park at the colonial office in the year 1804, relative to the plan and objects of the intended expedition into Africa; together with the official instructions which he received for his guidance: and two letters addressed by him to the secretary of state, one written shortly after his arrival at the coast of Africa, and the other, at the time of transmitting his journal, previously to his final embarkation on the Niger.

'4. Several private letters of Mr. Park, principally written during the time he was engaged in this mission; which, together with the documents included under the last-mentioned head, have been incorporated into the account of Mr. Park's Life, which is prefixed to the journal.

'It has before been stated, that the official papers are published under the authority of the Directors of the African Institution. It may be proper to add, that the individual, who has undertaken to prepare this work for the press, is alone responsible for the publication of the private letters, and for whatever else is contained in this volume, besides the official documents.

'Of the papers before enumerated, the most important, and the only one which calls for any particular observation, is Mr. Park's own journal; respecting which, it may be necessary to apprize the reader that it was written without the slightest view to publication, being intended only (as he informed the secretary of state, by his letter of the 17th of November, 1805,) "to recall to his own recollection *other* particulars illustrative of the manners and customs of the natives, which would have swelled the communication to a most unreasonable size." The work, therefore, which is now submitted to the public, can be considered in no other light than as the mere outline of a much more extended and detailed narrative, which it was the author's intention to prepare for the press after his return to England.'

It is concluded by the editor that, though this journal is but a very unfinished sketch, it bears strong internal marks of truth

truth and fidelity, contains several interesting particulars not hitherto known, and affords a clear conception of the process of an African journey; and that therefore many will be found who will feel thankful for its publication. We shall furnish our readers with several extracts from it, by which they may appreciate its value: but we must first attend to the prefatory matter, which comes before us in the shape of a life of Mr. Park; and which, being augmented by appendices and digressions, has assumed a bulk for which the editor makes an apology. — By this Memoir, we learn that

'Mungo Park was born on the 10th of September 1771, at Fowlshiels, a farm occupied by his father, under the Duke of Buccleugh, on the banks of the Yarrow, not far from the town of Selkirk. His father, who bore the same name, was a respectable yeoman of Ettrick Forest. His mother, who is still living, is the daughter of the late Mr. John Hislop, of Tennis, a few miles higher up on the same river. The subject of this Memoir was the seventh child, and third son of the family, which consisted of thirteen children, eight of whom attained to years of maturity.

'Prior to the time of Mungo Park's birth, the father had for many years practised farming with assiduity and success on the estate at Fowlshiels, where he died in 1792, after a long and exemplary life, at the age of seventy-seven.' —

'After having received the first rudiments of education in his father's family, Mungo Park was in due time removed to the grammar-school at Selkirk, where he remained a considerable number of years. He had shewn a great love of reading from his childhood, and was indefatigable in his application at school, where he was much distinguished, and always at the head of his class. Even at that early age he was remarked for being silent, studious, and thoughtful: but some sparks of latent ambition occasionally broke forth: and indications might even then be discovered of that ardent and adventurous turn of mind, which distinguished him in after life, and which often lies concealed under a cold and reserved exterior.

'It was the original intention of Park's father to educate him for the Scottish church, for which he appeared to be well fitted by his studious habits and the serious turn of his mind; but, his son having made choice of the medical profession, he was readily induced to acquiesce. In consequence of this determination, Mungo Park was bound apprentice at the age of fifteen to Mr. Thomas Anderson, a respectable surgeon in Selkirk, with whom he resided three years; continuing, at the same time, to pursue his classical studies and to attend occasionally at the grammar-school. In the year 1789, he quitted Mr. Anderson, and removed to the University of Edinburgh, where he pursued the course which is common to medical students, and attended the usual Lectures during three successive sessions.' —

'After having completed his studies at Edinburgh, Park removed to London in search of some medical employment. In this pursuit he was much assisted by his relation Mr. Dickson, to whom he had before

before been indebted in his botanical studies. By his means Park was now introduced to Sir Joseph Banks: whose interest or recommendation shortly afterwards procured for him the appointment of assistant-surgeon to the Worcester East Indiaman.'—

'In consequence of the appointment which Mungo Park had obtained as surgeon in the East India Company's service, by the interest of Sir Joseph Banks, he sailed for the East Indies in the Worcester in the month of February, 1792; and having made a voyage to Bencoolen, in the island of Sumatra, returned to England in the following year.'

Mr. Park having a taste for natural history, as well as a passion for travelling, his attention was attracted by the proceedings of the African Association; and through Sir Joseph Banks he offered his services, which were accepted. From this moment, he may be said to date his public career.

'Having received his final instructions from the African Association, he set sail from Portsmouth on the 22d of May, 1795, on board the Endeavour, an African trader, bound for the Gambia, where he arrived on the 21st of the following month.—

'Landing on the 21st of June at Jillifree, a small town near the mouth of the river Gambia, he proceeded shortly afterwards to Pisania, a British factory about 200 miles up the same river, where he arrived on the 5th of July, and was most hospitably received by Dr. Laidley, a gentleman who had resided many years at that settlement. He remained at Dr. Laidley's house for several months in order to learn the Mandingo language, which is in general use throughout that part of Africa, and also to collect information concerning the countries he intended to visit. During two of these months he was confined by a severe fever, caught by imprudently exposing himself during the rainy season.

'He left Pisania on the 2d of December, 1795, directing his course easterly, with a view of proceeding to the river Joliba, or Niger. But in consequence of a war between two sovereigns in the interior he was obliged, after he had made some progress, to take a northerly direction towards the territory of the Moors. He arrived at Jarra, the frontier town of that country, on the 18th of February, 1796. Pursuing his journey from thence, he was taken and detained as a prisoner, by Ali, the chieftain or king of that territory, on the 7th of March; and after a long captivity and a series of unexampled hardships, escaped at last with great difficulty early in the month of July.

'The period was now approaching when he was to receive some compensation for so many sufferings. After wandering in great misery for about three weeks through the African wilderness, he arrived at Sego, the capital of Bambarra, a city which is said to contain thirty thousand inhabitants. He was gratified at the same time by the first sight of the Niger, the great object of his journey; and ascertained the extraordinary fact, that its course is from west to east.'

The subsequent adventures, which befel him in his first African excursions, are given in the work to which we have already referred. When he returned to England, he was hailed with a sort of triumph by the Association which so nobly patronized him; and it is added, as a kind of private anecdote, that, arriving in London on Christmas-day 1797, before day-light, and rambling soon afterward into the gardens of the British Museum, the door of which was accidentally open, he met his friend Mr. Dickson, who at first contemplated him as a vision, having long numbered him with the dead.

Mr. Park is represented as studiously employed in arranging the materials for the volume of Travels which appeared in the spring of 1799; and by which he is considered as having made 'the greatest accession to the general stock of geographical knowledge, which was ever yet made by any single traveller.' The biographer, in order to substantiate this remark, observes that

'Among the great variety of facts concerning the interior of Africa not before known, or at least not ascertained, which the labours of Park have placed beyond all doubt, the most interesting unquestionably are, those which relate to the existence of the great inland river, the Niger, as a distinct and separate stream, and its course from west to east; affording a remarkable confirmation of what had been stated concerning this river by Herodotus and the ancient writers; but which was afterwards controverted by the geographers of the middle ages, who asserted (what, independently of direct evidence, seemed more probable) that the course of the river was from east to west. This latter opinion had accordingly been followed by the greater part of the moderns; with the exception indeed of some of the most distinguished geographers of later times, particularly D'Anville and Major Rennell, who had called in question the doctrine then prevalent, and given strong reasons for adhering to the ancient opinion. This however at the time of Park's journey could be considered in no other light than as a reasonable conjecture, till the fact was ascertained by the unexceptionable testimony of an eye-witness.

'Another important circumstance respecting the Niger, previously unknown, but which was fully established by Park, is the vast magnitude of that stream; an extraordinary fact, considering its situation and inland course, and which has led, as will hereafter be seen, to several interesting conjectures respecting the course and the termination of that river.

'In addition to these discoveries relative to the *physical* state of Africa, others were made by Park scarcely less important, in what may be termed its *moral* geography; namely, the kind and amiable dispositions of the Negro inhabitants of the interior, as contrasted with the intolerance and brutal ferocity of the Moors; the existence of great and populous cities in the heart of Africa; and the higher state

state of improvement and superior civilization of the inhabitants of the interior, on a comparison with the inhabitants of the countries adjoining to the coast.

'To this it may be added, that the work in question contains many interesting details not before known, concerning the face of the country, its soil and productions, as well as the condition of the inhabitants; their principal occupations, and their manners and habits of life; and the anecdotes which are interspersed, illustrative of the character and disposition of the Negro inhabitants at a distance from the coast, and beyond the influence of the slave-trade, are in the highest degree interesting and affecting.'

That difficulties and dangers were experienced by Mr. Park in this enterprize, no one will be disposed to doubt; much less be inclined to withhold from him the praise of firmness and perseverance: but it is some reflection on his memory that he did not appear a warm advocate for the abolition of the slave-trade: unless this circumstance may be explained by the influence of Mr. Bryan Edwards, who is generally supposed to have prepared Mr. Park's Travels for the press, if not to have re-written the whole MS. Admitting this supposition, the cold and guarded manner in which Mr. Park delivers his opinion, in the passage quoted at p. 25. note, may easily be understood, and bears internal evidence of the diminished share which he had in the composition of the Travels. We agree with the biographer that this interference is to be lamented; and that a simple narrative, such as Mr. P. would have given if left to himself, would have been preferable to the studied detail of Mr. E.

Of Mr. Park's marriage and subsequent retirement into Scotland, we need not take any particular notice. On the capture of Goree in 1800, we find him corresponding with Sir Joseph Banks on the subject of farther discoveries in Africa; and though in 1801 he availed himself of an opportunity of setting as a surgeon at Peebles, still *Africa*, *Africa*, was uppermost in his mind. How, then, must he have been rejoiced on receiving in the October of that year,

'A letter from Sir Joseph Banks, acquainting him, "that in consequence of the peace, the Association would certainly revive their project of sending a mission to Africa; in order to penetrate to, and navigate the Niger; and he added, that in case Government should enter into the plan, Park would certainly be recommended as the person proper to be employed for carrying it into execution." But the business remained for a considerable time in suspense; nor did any specific proposal follow this communication till the autumn of the year 1803; when he received a letter addressed to him from the office of the colonial secretary of state, desiring his attendance without delay. On his arrival in London he had an interview with the present Earl of Buckinghamshire, then Lord Hobart, and secretary of state for the colonial department, who acquainted him with

the nature of an expedition to Africa, which was about to take place, and in which it was proposed that Park should bear a principal part.'

From a feeling of modesty, or propriety, he declined an immediate answer: but his determination was formed, and his imagination delighted with the prospect before him. He therefore accepted Lord H.'s proposal, and speedily prepared for his departure, leaving his friends in Scotland in December 1803; though many delays took place before he actually embarked on his mission. During this interval, he acquired some knowlege of Arabic from the interpreter of Elphi Bey, (the ambassador of the Mamelukes from Cairo,) improved himself in the practice of taking astronomical observations, and prepared a Memoir for Government; stating the objects to which his attention ought, as he conceived, to be directed, with the means to be employed, and the manner in which he proposed to carry the plans of Government into execution. He then received his final instructions from Lord Camden, with a power of drawing on the Treasury for 5000l.; sailed from Portsmouth, January 30. 1805; arrived at Port Praya Bay, in the Cape de Verd Islands, about the 8th of March; anchored in Goree Roads on the 28th; and on April 26. he wrote a letter to his wife from Kayee, River Gambia, in which he told her that he and his party were to depart on the next day for the interior. For the subsequent incidents of his life, the journal of his last mission must be consulted; and for the melancholy particulars of his death, the journal of Isaaco, a Mandingo priest and travelling merchant, who was engaged by Park to serve as a guide. The biographer, however, in order to render his memoir complete, has abridged the journal; interspersing such reflections and supplementary matter as were judged necessary to give a roundness and finish to his narrative. A sketch of Park's character has been inserted, and ought perhaps to be exhibited in our pages:

'The leading parts of Mungo Park's character must have been anticipated by the reader in the principal events and transactions of his life. Of his enterprising spirit, his indefatigable vigilance and activity, his calm fortitude and unshaken perseverance, he has left permanent memorials in the narrative of his former travels and in the journal and correspondence now published. In these respects few travellers have equalled, none certainly ever surpassed him. Nor were the qualities of his understanding less valuable or conspicuous. He was distinguished by a correctness of judgment, seldom found united with an ardent and adventurous turn of mind, and generally deemed incompatible with it. His talents certainly were not brilliant, but solid and useful, such as were peculiarly suited to a traveller and geographical discoverer. Hence, in his accounts of new and

unknown countries, he is consistent and rational; he is betrayed into no exaggeration, nor does he exhibit any traces of credulity or enthusiasm. His attention was directed exclusively to facts; and except in his opinion relative to the termination of the Niger (which he supported by very plausible arguments) he rarely indulged in conjecture, much less in hypothesis or speculation.

'Among the characteristic qualities of Park which were so apparent in his former travels, none certainly were more valuable or contributed more to his success than his admirable prudence, calmness and temper; but it has been doubted whether these merits were equally conspicuous during his second expedition. The parts of his conduct which have given occasion to this remark, are, his setting out from the Gambia almost at the eve of the rainy season, and his voyage down the Niger under circumstances so apparently desperate. On the motives by which he may have been influenced as to the former of these measures, something has been said in the course of the foregoing narrative. With regard to his determination in the latter instance, justice must allow that his situation was one of extreme difficulty, and admitted probably of no alternative. In both cases our knowledge of the facts is much too imperfect to enable us to form a correct opinion as to the propriety of his conduct, much less to justify us in condemning him *unheard*.

'In all the relations of private life, he appears to have been highly exemplary; and his conduct as a son, a husband, and a father, merited every praise. To the more gentle and amiable parts of his character the most certain of all testimonies may be found in the warm attachment of his friends, and in the fond and affectionate recollections of every branch of his family.

'There are some moral defects very difficult to be avoided by those persons, who from a situation comparatively obscure, rise to sudden distinction and celebrity. From these failings Park was happily exempt. He was a stranger to all vanity and affectation; and notwithstanding his great popularity and success, appears to have lost no portion of the genuine simplicity of his character and manners. This simplicity originated perhaps in a considerable degree from a certain coldness and reserve, which, as was before remarked, rendered him very indifferent, and perhaps somewhat averse, to mixed or general society. It was probably owing to the same cause that his conversation, for a man who had seen so much, had nothing remarkable, and was rarely striking or animated. Hence, although his appearance was interesting and prepossessing, he was apt to disappoint the expectations of strangers; and those persons who estimated his general talents from his powers of conversation, formed an erroneous and inadequate opinion of his merits.

'In his person he was tall, being about six feet high, and perfectly well proportioned. His countenance and whole appearance were highly interesting; and his frame active and robust, fitted for great exertions and the endurance of great hardships. His constitution had suffered considerably from the effects of his first journey into Africa, but seems afterwards to have been restored to its original vigour, of which his last expedition afforded the most ample proofs.'

Arguments are employed to shew that, though Mr. Park failed in his object, in consequence of the improper season at which he embarked in it, nothing appears to prove the impracticability of the project; and that sufficient inducements still exist for attempting farther discoveries in Africa. The new scheme devised for this purpose is certainly better considered than that of Mr. Park; and the employment of blacks for soldiers to attend the expedition, especially of black men who state themselves to be natives of those cities in the interior of Africa which Europeans are so solicitous to visit, affords a fairer prospect of success than the use of our own soldiers. While, however, we express, with many of our enlightened countrymen, an ardent wish for some authentic information respecting the state of the interior districts of Africa, we must acknowlege that great obstacles oppose its attainment; and that, under the most propitious circumstances, serious dangers must await the European traveller, who may be proof against the effects of climate, but may fall a sacrfice to the jealousy, fears, or avarice of the negroes.

The journal of Mr. Park's last mission to Africa, which occupies nearly the remainder of the volume, is divided into five chapters. It commences with his departure from Kayee, April 27. 1805, as already noticed, and includes regular memoranda of his progress and adventures to Nov. 16.; so that seven months had not elapsed before his career was for ever arrested. It is very evident that, had he lived to return to his country, these mere *hints* would never have been laid before the public: but his melancholy fate gives an interest to every scrap of information respecting him; and we are not displeased that the MS., as Mr. Park left it, has been presented to us. We have promised our readers some extracts from it, and shall begin by transcribing some of the first memoranda. Lieut. Martyn and 35 men of the Royal African Corps formed his escort.

'April 27th, 1805.—At ten o'clock in the morning took our departure from Kayee. The *Crescent*, the *Washington*, and Mr. Ainsley's *vessel* did us the honour to fire a salute at our departure. The day proved remarkably hot; and some of the asses being unaccustomed to carry loads, made our march very fatiguing and troublesome. Three of them stuck fast in a muddy rice field about two miles east of Kayee; and while we were employed in getting them out, our guide and the people in front had gone on so far, that we lost sight of them. In a short time we overtook about a dozen soldiers and their asses, who had likewise fallen behind, and being afraid of losing their way, had halted till we came up. We in the rear took the road to Jonkakonda, which place we reached at one o'clock; but not finding Lieutenant Martyn nor any of the men who were in front, concluded they had gone by New Jermy, &c. therefore hired a guide and continued our march. Halted a few minutes under

under a large tree at the village of Lamain-Cotto, to allow the soldiers to cool themselves; and then proceeded towards *Lamain*, at which place we arrived at four o'clock. The people were extremely fatigued, having travelled all day under a vertical sun, and without a breath of wind. Lieutenant Martyn and the rest of our party arrived at half past five, having taken the road by New Jermy.

'On our arrival at Lamain, we unloaded the asses under a large Bentang tree on the east side of the town. The Slatee (or master of that district of the kingdom of Kataba, called Lamain) came to pay his respects to me, and requested that I would order the bundles and asses to be removed to some other tree; assuring me that if we slept under it, we should all be dead before morning. I was for some time at a loss to comprehend his meaning; when he took me by the hand, and leading me to one of the large notches in the root of the tree, shewed me three spear-heads which appeared to have been tinged with blood, lying with their points amongst bone-ashes, and surrounded with a rope half burnt. I now ordered the bundles to be removed to another tree, presented the Slatee with a keg of liquor, and received in return a small bullock. Here we were forced to purchase water, the wells of the town being nearly dry. Slept very comfortably under the tree, and at day-break,

'April 28th, set out for Pisania. We passed two small Foulah towns and the village of Collin, and reached the banks of the Gambia at half past eleven o'clock. Halted and gave our cattle water and grass: we likewise cooked our dinners, and rested till three o'clock, when we set forward and arrived at Pisania at sun-set. Here we were accommodated at Mr. Ainsley's house; and as his schooner had not yet arrived with our baggage, I purchased some corn for our cattle, and spoke for a bullock for the soldiers.'—

'May 4th.—Left Pisania at half-past nine o'clock. The mode of marching was adjusted as follows. The *asses* and *loads* being all marked and numbered with red paint, a certain number of each was allotted to each of the six messes, into which the soldiers were divided; and the asses were further subdivided amongst the individuals of each mess, so that every man could tell at first sight the ass and load which belonged to him. The asses were also numbered with large figures, to prevent the natives from stealing them, as they could neither wash nor clip it off without being discovered. Mr. George Scott and one of Isaaco's people generally went in front, Lieutenant Martyn in the centre, and Mr. Anderson and myself in the rear. We were forced to leave at Pisania about five cwt. of rice, not having a sufficient number of asses to carry it. We were escorted till we passed Tendicunda by Mr. Ainsley, and the good old Seniora Camilla, and most of the respectable natives in the vicinity. Our march was most fatiguing. Many of the asses being rather overloaded, lay down on the road; others kicked off their bundles; so that, after using every exertion to get forward, we with difficulty reached Samee, a distance of about eight miles. We unloaded our asses under a large Tabba tree at some distance from the town, and in the evening I went with Isaaco to pay my respects to the Slatee of Samee.

'The Slatee of Samee, as well as the Slatees of Lamain and Kutijar, is subject to the king of Kataba; but their subjection is

not easily defined. If a slave runs away from one to another, he cannot be reclaimed unless the other chooses to give him up. The Slatee was very drunk, and when I told him that I was come to pay my respects to him and would give him one jug of rum, he told me he would not allow me to pass unless I gave him ten jugs; and after a good deal of insignificant palaver, I was obliged to give him two jugs.'

Nothing very promising can be observed in the commencement of the expedition; and, as Mr. P. advanced, troubles and discouragements accumulated. At Medina, he experienced the unfriendly conduct of the king, and at Kanipe the inhospitable behaviour of the inhabitants. On May 25. the party entered the Tenda or Samakara wilderness; and on the next day they ascended from the plain of Doofroo, when they were assailed by an enemy against whose darts they had not provided, and whose attack wore the most alarming appearance:

'We had no sooner unloaded the asses at the creek, than some of Isaaco's people, being in search of honey, unfortunately disturbed a large swarm of bees near where the coffle (or caravan) had halted. The bees came out in immense numbers, and attacked men and beasts at the same time. Luckily most of the asses were loose, and galloped up the valley; but the horses and people were very much stung, and obliged to scamper in all directions. The fire which had been kindled for cooking being deserted, spread, and set fire to the bamboos; and our baggage had like to have been burnt. In fact, for half an hour the bees seemed to have completely put an end to our journey.

'In the evening, when the bees became less troublesome, and we could venture to collect our cattle, we found that many of them were very much stung and swelled about the head. Three asses were missing; one died in the evening, and one next morning, and we were forced to leave one at Sibikillin; in all six: besides which, our guide lost his horse, and many of the people were very much stung about the face and hands.'

June 10. was marked by a heavy tornado, which Mr. P. says had an instant effect on the health of the soldiers, and proved to be *the beginning of sorrows*. The effect of the rain which fell was singular:

'The rain had not commenced three minutes before many of the soldiers were affected with vomiting; others fell asleep, and seemed as if half intoxicated. I felt a strong inclination to sleep during the storm; and as soon as it was over I fell asleep on the wet ground, although I used every exertion to keep myself awake. The soldiers likewise fell asleep on the wet bundles.'

So rapidly had sickness now extended among the men, that on the morning of the 13th, when they departed from Dindikoo, 'the sick occupied all the horses and spare asses;' and by the 15th some were slightly delirious. At Kimbia, the blacks

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manifested their hostile disposition, and made it very probable that, as soon as the party was so reduced as to be unable to defend themselves, the inhabitants would attack them and seize their property.

July 4. Isaaco, the guide, was nearly demolished by a crocodile. His escape appears scarcely credible:

'Our guide, Isaaco, was very active in pushing the asses into the water, and shoving along the canoe; but as he was afraid that we could not have them all carried over in the course of the day, he attempted to drive six of the asses across the river farther down where the water was shallower. When he had reached the middle of the river, a crocodile rose close to him, and instantly seizing him by the left thigh, pulled him under water. With wonderful presence of mind he felt the head of the animal, and thrust his finger into its eye; on which it quitted its hold, and Isaaco attempted to reach the further shore, calling out for a knife. But the crocodile returned and seized him by the other thigh, and again pulled him under water; he had recourse to the same expedient, and thrust his fingers into its eyes with such violence that it again quitted him; and when it rose flounced about on the surface of the water as if stupid, and then swam down the middle of the river. Isaaco proceeded to the other side, bleeding very much. As soon as the canoe returned, I went over, and found him very much lacerated. The wound on the left thigh was four inches in length: that on the right not quite so large, but very deep; besides several single teeth wounds on his back.'

It is afflicting to peruse the items of this melancholy journal. Depredations were made on the coffle, or caravan, (as the party is called,) by the inhabitants in one place, and banditti in another; increasing sickness and death prevailed among the small military escort; and the continuance of rain gave little hope of any improvement in the sick list. At last, by the fatal effects of the rainy season, Mr. Park was reduced to the most distressing situation: one after another, his companions sank into the grave; — yet, though assailed by misfortune, on the 19th of August, he came within sight of the Niger, or Joliba, the view of which seemed for a time to give him spirits, though sad recollections soon embittered them:

'We kept ascending the mountains to the south of Toniba till three o'clock, at which time having gained the summit of the ridge which separates the Niger from the remote branches of the Senegal, I went on a little before; and coming to the brow of the hill, I *once more saw the Niger* rolling its immense stream along the plain!

'After the fatiguing march which we had experienced, the sight of this river was no doubt pleasant, as it promised an end to, or to be at least an alleviation of our toils. But when I reflected that three-fourths of the soldiers had died on their march, and that in addition to our weakly state we had no carpenters to build the boats, in which we proposed to prosecute our discoveries, the prospect appeared somewhat gloomy.' —

'But

'But to return to the Niger. The river was much swelled by the rains, but did not appear to overflow its banks. It certainly is larger even here than either the Senegal or the Gambia. We descended with difficulty down the steep side of the hill towards Bambakoo, which place we reached at half past six o'clock, and pitched our tents under a tree near the town. Of thirty-four soldiers and four carpenters, who left the Gambia, only six soldiers and one carpenter reached the Niger.'

Oct. 28. Mr. Park's particular friend, Mr. Alexander Anderson, died after an illness of four months; by which afflicting event, Mr. P. felt himself, to use his own words, 'as if left a second time lonely and friendless amidst the wilds of Africa.' Alas! it was ordained that Mr. Park should not long survive his friend! His last memorandum records the return of Isaaco from Sego, and includes a *fac-simile* sketch of the course of the Niger, made by old Somonie, who had been seven times at Tombuctoo, and was then going again: but we must trust to the journals of Isaaco and of Amadi Fatouma, for the particulars which led to and occasioned the death of our most enterprizing traveller. Isaaco was absent when this sad catastrophe occurred; and his evidence consisting only of the replies of Amadi Fatouma to the question, 'What has happened to Mr. Park?' we shall recur to the statement of the latter; which, after all, is very unsatisfactory, though probably the best account that we are likely to receive:

'We came-to, before Carmasse, and gave the chief one piece of baft. We went on and anchored before Gourmon. Mr. Park sent me on shore with forty thousand cowries to buy provisions. I went and bought rice, onions, fowls, milk, &c. and departed late in the evening. The chief of the village sent a canoe after us, to let us know of a large army encamped on the top of a very high mountain, waiting for us; and that we had better return, or be on our guard. We immediately came to an anchor, and spent there the rest of the day, and all the night. We started in the morning; on passing the above-mentioned mountain, we saw the army, composed of Moors, with horses and camels; but without any fire-arms. As they said nothing to us, we passed on quietly, and entered the country of Haoussa, and came to an anchor. Mr. Park said to me, "Now, Amadi, you are at the end of your journey; I engaged you to conduct me here; you are going to leave me, but before you go, you must give me the names of the necessaries of life, &c., in the language of the countries through which I am going to pass;" to which I agreed, and we spent two days together about it, without landing. During our voyage I was the only one who had landed. We departed, and arrived at Yaour.

'I was sent on shore the next morning with a musket and a sabre, to carry to the chief of the village, also with three pieces of white baft for distribution. I went and gave the chief his present: I also

gave one piece to Alhagi, one to Alhagi-biron, and the other to a person whose name I forget, all Marabous. The chief gave us a bullock, a sheep, three jars of honey, and four men's loads of rice. Mr. Park gave me seven thousand cowries, and ordered me to buy provisions, which I did; he told me to go to the chief and give him five silver rings, some powder and flints, and tell him that these presents were given to the king* by the white men, who were taking leave of him before they went away. After the chief had received these things, he inquired if the white men intended to come back. Mr. Park being informed of this enquiry, replied that he could not return any more†. Mr. Park had paid me for my voyage before we left Sansanding: I said to him, "I agreed to carry you into the kingdom of Haoussa; we are now in Haoussa. I have fulfilled my engagements with you; I am therefore going to leave you here and return."

'Next day (Saturday) Mr. Park departed, and I slept in the village (Yaour). Next morning, I went to the king to pay my respects to him; on entering the house I found two men who came on horseback; they were sent by the chief of Yaour. They said to the king, "We are sent by the chief of Yaour to let you know that the white men went away, without giving you or him (the chief) any thing; they have a great many things with them, and we have received nothing from them; and this Amadou Fatouma now before you is a bad man, and has likewise made a fool of you both." The king immediately ordered me to be put in irons; which was accordingly done, and every thing I had taken from me; some were for killing me, and some for preserving my life. The next morning early the king sent an army to a village called Boussa, near the river side. There is before this village a rock across the whole breadth of the river. One part of the rocks is very high; there is a large opening in that rock in the form of a door, which is the only passage for the water to pass through; the tide current is here very strong. This army went and took possession of the top of this opening. Mr. Park came there, after the army had posted itself; he nevertheless attempted to pass. The people began to attack him, throwing lances, pikes, arrows, and stones. Mr. Park defended himself for a long time; two of his slaves at the stern of the canoe were killed; they threw every thing they had in the canoe into the river, and kept firing; but being overpowered by numbers and fatigue, and unable to keep up the canoe against the current, and no probability of escaping, Mr. Park took hold of one of the white men, and jumped into the water; Martyn did the same, and they were drowned in the stream in attempting to escape. The only slave remaining in the boat, seeing the natives persist in throwing weapons at the canoe without ceasing, stood up and said to them, "Stop throwing now, you see

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'* The king staid a few hundred yards from the river.'

'† These words occasioned his death; for the certainty of Mr. Park's not returning induced the chief to withhold the presents from the king.'

nothing

nothing in the canoe, and nobody but myself, therefore cease. Take me and the canoe, but don't kill me." They took possession of the canoe and the man, and carried them to the king.

'I was kept in irons three months; the king released me and gave me a slave (woman). I immediately went to the slave taken in the canoe, who told me in what manner Mr. Park and all of them had died, and what I have related above. I asked him if he was sure nothing had been found in the canoe after its capture; he said that nothing remained in the canoe but himself and a sword-belt. I asked him where the sword-belt was; he said the king took it, and had made a girth for his horse with it.'

Though these documents contain information which falls very short of our expectations, they still present us with materials of no ordinary kind; and they will probably not only excite attention but give birth to a variety of speculations. Perhaps we have not a correct account of the last scene of Park's life, but of his death no doubt can now be entertained. What advantage the next expedition can derive from the present volume, it is difficult to decide: but all will admit that it ought not to take place in the rainy season; and that its conductors, in addition to a stock of requisite knowlege and prudence, should be attended by a force sufficient to overawe the natives. — A map is subjoined which will assist in tracing Mr. Park's route.

The African Association has lately published some additional Reports, which we hope shortly to notice.

ART. XIV. *Specimens of the Classic Poets*, in a Chronological Series from Homer to Tryphiodorus, translated into English Verse, and illustrated with Biographical and Critical Notices. By Charles Abraham Elton, Author of a Translation of Hesiod. 8vo. 3 Vols. 1l. 16s. Boards. Baldwin. 1814.

IN proportion as we acknowlege with pleasure that these multifarious volumes exhibit a very considerable share of classical science, and as we unfeignedly respect any such attainments, we are pained at feeling compelled to add that, in our judgment, the poetical taste and spirit of the author by no means keep pace with his learning. The truth, however, is that, whether we examine the translations from the Greek or from the Latin poets; whether we look for the animation, the elegance, or the tenderness of many pieces in the Anthology; or whether we expect to find the nature and energy of Homer tranfused into vivid English verse; we are equally disappointed. It was with some surprize indeed, as well as regret, that we saw a scholar, as Mr. Elton confessedly is, almost uniformly (according

(according to our apprehension) failing in his attempts to represent the higher qualities of his original: but, on referring to his preface, we think that we have discovered the master-key to this perplexing series of unpleasant phænomena. He there not only adopts a theory of translation directly opposite to that of Dryden and Pope, and many more modern authorities, but, as directly in the face of the former of these great men, (or rather in that of Sir John Denham, whose opinion however is the same,) he maintains the possibility of being closely faithful and poetical at the same time. He takes the body, according to Dryden's idea, instead of the soul of his original; and, although Horace and good sense and genius positively forbid, he too frequently endeavours to "transfuse the poesy with the language:" thus presenting the reader with aukward, prosaic, and latinized English,—with rough, broken, and inharmonious versification. How *should* it be otherwise, when an author sets forth with such a criticism as the following, on the celebrated passage at the end of the eighth book in Pope's version of the Iliad?

'Of this passage, when it has been conceded that the cadence is harmonious, and that the fourth couplet is picturesque, what is there left that can challenge praise? In the first line we are informed, that the moon is the "refulgent lamp of night:" *sacred*, in the second, is a cold make-weight epithet, and adds no sensible image: the *solemn scene* is general, when all should be local and particular: the simple reality of moonlight is impaired by the metaphor and personification in the words "around *her throne*:" *A flood of glory* not only verges on bombast, but conveys nothing distinct: we receive no clear impression of the boundless firmament opening on the vision by the breaking of the mist overhead; nor of the multitude of twinkling stars that are taken in at once by the scope of sight: and the mountain-shepherd, looking up at the moon from among his flocks, with a sudden sensation of cheeriness in his solitude, is displaced by a vulgar company of swains, *eyeing* the blue vault, and *blessing* the light, because it is *useful*: and it is thus that Homer is raised and improved!'

It is impossible here to refrain from transcribing this noble and we must add calumniated specimen of genius, and then contrasting it with the tame and feeble attempt of the present critic.—Our readers, we are assured, will forgive the repetition of the subjoined well-known lines:

"As when the moon, refulgent lamp of night!
O'er heav'n's clear azure spreads her sacred light,
When not a breath disturbs the deep serene,
And not a cloud o'ercasts the solemn scene;
Around her throne the vivid planets roll,
And stars unnumber'd gild the glowing pole,

O'er

O'er the dark trees a yellower verdure shed,
And tip with silver ev'ry mountain's head;
Then shine the vales, the rocks in prospect rise,
A flood of glory bursts from all the skies:
The conscious swains, rejoicing in the sight,
Eye the blue vault, and bless the useful light.
So many flames before proud *Ilion* blaze,
And lighten glimm'ring *Xanthus* with their rays:
The long reflections of the distant fires
Gleam on the walls, and tremble on the spires.
A thousand piles the dusky horrours gild,
And shoot a shady lustre o'er the field.
Full fifty guards each flaming pile attend,
Whose umber'd arms, by fits, thick flashes send,
Loud neigh the coursers o'er their heaps of corn,
And ardent warriours wait the rising morn." (POPE.)

'As beautiful the stars shine out in heaven
Around the splendid moon, no breath of wind
Ruffling the blue calm ether; clear'd from mist
The beacon hill-tops, crags, and forest dells
Emerge in light; th' immeasurable sky
Breaks from above, and opens on the gaze;
The multitude of stars are seen at once
Full sparkling, and the shepherd looking up
Feels gladden'd at his heart; so many fires,
Midway the ships and Xanthus' glimmering stream,
Blazed up in front of Troy. A thousand flames
Burn'd on the plain: around each sep'rate pile
Sate fifty men, on whom the reddening glare
Reflected shone. Meanwhile the steeds all stood
Fast by their chariots, champing the white grain;
And tarried till the bright-throned morn appear.'
(ELTON.)

If the above does not condemn itself in the minds of our readers, and answer every word of its author's unwarrantable attack on Pope, we despair of producing conviction by argument on so clear a case.

With regard to the general question of fidelity in translation, we may safely leave it in the hands of Denham, Dryden, Mickle, and Lord Woodhouselee, who are only a few of Mr. Elton's opponents, but, being those whom he has himself quoted, are fairly selected by us as his adversaries. We would only ask him ourselves, in what *instance* has it been found possible to reconcile a closely faithful version of an antient author with a free, animated, and flowing English style? Not only are there "certain graces and happinesses *peculiar* to every language, which give life and energy to the words," (according to Denham's expression,) but one age has such a *wholly* different impress and character from another, that it is literally impossible

sible to attempt to preserve its features entirely and exactly without caricaturing them. All this has been urged over and over again, and we never saw any answer to it either in critical principle or poetical practice. As to the latter, to which for many reasons we wish at present to confine so hackneyed a discussion, we again ask for Mr. Elton's *instance*, of fire and fidelity united? — native unquenchable fire, we mean, and exact fidelity.

Still more should we be gratified on seeing the example of a good version of an antient poet into blank verse. Of this measure Mr. Elton is the warm advocate, as we might naturally expect: but neither his own nor Cowper's, nor Morris's, experiments on Homer will gain, we believe, half-a-dozen poetical scholars in Great Britain to his opinion. On Lucan he has made some still more unsuccessful exertions; and really we cannot conceive, with the fear of Rowe before his eyes, how he could act in so imprudent a manner. If Mr. Elton has ventured to contrast himself with Pope, (for be it observed that this is his own doing *,) we, assuredly, may be allowed to compare him with Rowe; and we select therefore the characters of Pompey and Cæsar in the first book of the Pharsalia for this comparison. Our readers will again forgive us for recalling them to an old acquaintance. — Pompey, as they will recollect,

" ——stood the shadow of what once he was.
So in the field with Ceres' bounty spread,
Up-rears some antient oak his reverend head;
Chaplets and sacred gifts his boughs adorn,
And spoils of war by mighty heroes worn.
But the first vigour of his root now gone,
He stands dependent on his weight alone;
All bare his naked branches are displayed,
And with his leafless trunk he forms a shade:
Yet though the winds his ruin daily threat,
As every blast would heave him from his seat;
Tho' thousand fairer trees the field supplies,
That rich in youthful verdure round him rise;
Fixed in his antient state he yields to none,
And wears the honours of the grove alone.
But Cæsar's greatness and his strength was more
Than past renown and antiquated power;
'Twas not the fame of what he once had been,
Or tales in old records and annals seen;
But 'twas a valour restless, unconfined,
Which no success could sate, nor limits bind;

* He also adduces Cowper's translation of the passage in question: —but, multiply it as we will, *ex nihilo nil fit*.

'Twas

'Twas shame, a soldier's shame, untaught to yield,
That blushed for nothing but an ill-fought field;
Fierce in his hopes he was, nor knew to stay,
Where vengeance or ambition led the way;
Still prodigal of war whene'er withstood,
Nor spared to stain the guilty sword with blood;
Urging advantage he improved all odds,
And made the most of fortune and the gods;
Pleased to o'erturn whate'er with-held his prize,
And saw the ruin with rejoicing eyes.
Such, while earth trembles, and heaven thunders loud,
Darts the swift lightening from the rending cloud;
Fierce through the day it breaks, and in its flight
The dreadful blast confounds the gazer's sight;
Resistless in its course delights to rove,
And cleaves the temples of its master Jove:
Alike where'er it passes or returns,
With equal rage the fell destroyer burns;
Then, with a whirl, full in its strength retires,
And re-collects the force of all its scatter'd fires." (Rowe.)

'He stood, the shadow of a mighty name.
As, on some acorn-teeming plain, an oak,
Bearing aloft a people's spoils of yore,
And consecrated gifts of chieftains old,
No longer clings to vigorous roots, but stands
By its own weight made stedfast, and, in air
Spreading abroad its bare and straggling boughs
Casts with its trunk a shadow, not with leaves;
Though, at the first rush of the eastern blast,
It nods from high, and rocks, as to its fall;
Though all around woods rise of firmer stem,
Its reverend pomp remains. But no such name
Of old renown, nor glory of the field
Was Cæsar's; but a valour that could brook
No rest: his only shame was victory won
By aught but open force; a spirit keen,
And unsubdued; at beck of sanguine hope,
Or anger, prompt to rush; and never slow,
On rash occasion's spur, to stain the sword.
Fervid to push success; adroit to seize
Th' auspicious hour of fortune; beating down
All obstacles, while pressing to the heights;
And glorying still to hew himself a path
Through havoc and destruction. So, by winds
Crush'd from the clouds, the glittering lightning breaks,
With roaring of the agitated air,
And hollow crash of earth: through the clear day
It cleaves a fiery track, while, terror-struck,
The nations tremble; and their darkening eyes
Are dazzled by the crooked glare of flame;
Against its native sphere, the concave Heaven,

Rages

Rages the forky element and rends
The unresisting ether; in descent,
As in recoil, it spreads the mighty range
Of devastation; gathers in an orb
The scatter'd fires, and re-ascends in flame.' (ELTON.)

We might probably be excused from any farther discharge of our disagreeable duty on this occasion: but we are anxious to do full justice to the author, and the more especially as we are forced to be unfavourable to him. We shall therefore have recourse to some originals of a different kind, in order to give Mr. Elton an opportunity of shewing that, if he be not gifted with the extraordinary powers of an epic poet, he is yet possessed of the attributes of neatness and facility; and that, at least on some occasions, his tory principles of passive obedience as a translator are commuted for a little more whiggism or legitimate freedom in poetry. For these purposes, we shall first select the following 'Argument for social Enjoyment from the Shortness of Life.'

'May peace, may plenty bless our happy state,
And social feast; for evil war I hate.
Sky-dwelling Jove! above our city stand,
And o'er her safety spread thy guardian hand.
Smile, every god; and Phœbus, thou, dispense
The mind of wit, the tongue of eloquence:
Let harp and pipe in sacred song combine,
And, with libations of the sprinkled wine
Appeasing heaven, let converse blithe be ours,
And goblets, dreadless of the Median powers.
So is it best to trifle life away,
Our minds with care unburthen'd, light, and gay:
So from dark ills of fate our thoughts defend,
From age pernicious, and our mortal end.
In youth I blithesome sport; for soon shall fly
My spirit; and my body deep shall lie
Beneath th' eternal ground; while years roll on
Laid motionless, and speechless as a stone.

'Yes—I shall leave the pleasant sun; nor more,
Though virtuous, look on all that pleas'd before.
Now, then, my soul! take pleasure: other eyes
Shall view the sun, and other men arise:
While I am lying cold, and stark, and dead,
With dusty blackness of the earth o'erspread.
Still leaps my heart, when, breathing on my ear,
The lovely voice of murm'ring flutes I hear:
The goblet cheers: the minstrels joyance bring;
And my own hands touch, glad, the thrilling string:
There breathes not mortal, on whose head the ground
Has closed, whom hell's dark chambers compass round,

That hears the minstrel, listens to the lyre,
Or feels the rosy gifts of wine inspire.
My soul! the thought shall pleasure's counsel speak;
Ere the head tremble, ere the knees are weak.'

We forbear to contrast with this very fair specimen of the thoughts if not of the flow of Theognis, the singularly happy translation of the same passage in the "Collections from the Greek Anthology:" but we should be guilty of neglecting a work to which Mr. Elton himself often recalls us, by mentioning the name of one of its authors, if we did not compare some of his own versions of the shorter Greek pieces with those of the book in question. We shall consequently adduce in the next place one of Mr. Elton's best little versions, and that too from Sappho, subjoining the translation of his predecessor from the same original:

'When dead, thou shalt in ashes lie,
Nor live in human memory:
Nor any page in time to come
Shall draw thee from thy shrowding tomb.
For thou didst never pluck the rose
That on Pieria's mountain grows:
Dim and unseen thy feet shall tread
The shadowy mansions of the dead:
Thee, maiden! shall no eye survey
Start from th' obscurer ghosts, and wing thy soaring way.'

Thus far Mr. Elton.—We now quote from the "*Collections.*"

'To AN ILLITERATE WOMAN. (*B.*)

"Unknown, unheeded shalt thou die,
And no memorial shall proclaim,
That once beneath the upper sky
Thou hadst a being and a name.

"For never to the Muse's bowers
Didst thou with glowing heart repair,
Nor ever intertwine the flowers
That fancy strews unnumbered there.

"Doomed o'er that dreary realm alone,
Shunn'd by the gentler shades, to go,
Nor friend shall soothe, nor parent own,
The child of sloth, the Muse's foe."

The celebrated Ode of Sappho, so well rendered (after all objections) by Phillips, is thus given by Mr. Elton:

'That man is like a God to me
Who, sitting face to face with thee,
Shall hear thee sweetly speak, and see
Thy laughter's gentle blandishing.

'Tis

'Tis this astounds my trembling heart:
I see thee, lovely as thou art:
My fluttering words in murmurs start,
My broken tongue is faltering.

My flushing skin the fire betrays
That through my blood electric strays:
My eyes seem darkening as I gaze,
My ringing ears re-echoing.

Cold from my forehead glides the dew:
A shuddering tremour thrills me through:
My cheek a green and yellow hue;
All gasping, dying, languishing.'

In the "*Collections*," we have an attempt to translate the conclusion of this ode more literally than it was rendered by Phillips: but, although we certainly prefer it to the strange flight of fancy just quoted, and think that Mr. Elton might learn even from this short passage more variety in the pauses of his poetry *, yet we are not convinced that these efforts towards more literal versions of poems already naturalized in English are either in the best taste or the highest tone of literature. We therefore omit it, and pass on to that beautiful description of Spring in Meleager which Mr. Elton has given in blank verse, and the Translator from the Greek Anthology in rhyme; and this will introduce a very few concluding remarks on one part of the comparison which Mr. Elton has instituted between the merits of these different species of poetry.

'SPRING.

The Winter now from all the gusty air
Has passed away; the purple hour of Spring
Smiles flowery; russet earth has crown'd itself
With greenest grass, and clothed the trees with leaves
Fresh-budding. All the meadows laugh: they drink
The tender dew of vegetative morn;
And the rose opens. Blithe the shepherd trills
His pipe upon the mountains; and with glee
The goat-herd looks upon his snowy kids.
The mariners already launch abroad
O'er the wide waves, and catch the zephyr's breath,
That, harmless, flutters in the swelling folds
Of their spread canvas; and the vintagers
Already hail with shouts the god of grapes,

* On this subject we shall say a few words at the end of our critique: but we must refer to Mr. Elton's preface, and then to his whole work, for a striking discordance of principles and practice in composition. He strongly insists on the necessity of varied pauses in blank verse, and constantly writes them with the same unmusical cadence.

Wreathing their temples with the triple flower
Of cluster'd ivy. Now the bees, whose birth
Swarm'd from a heifer's hide, ply busily
Their skilful works, and sitting on the hive,
Distil the white and virgin balm, that flows,
Fresh-trickling, through the hollow'd waxen cells.
With shrill-tuned voices all the tribes of birds
Carol their note: the halcyons on the sea;
The swallows round the mansion's roofs; the swan
Upon the river's banks; the nightingale
Beneath the thicket. Then, if all the plants
Rejoice in leaves; the ground with verdure bloom;
The shepherd breathe his pipe; the well-fleeced flocks
Bound in their gambols; if the mariners
Skim with expanded sail; the Bacchic throng
Troop in loud revels; and the winged birds
Warble, and bees with restless murmurings toil;
How should I fail to sing my vernal song?'

We subjoin the version in rhyme:

"THE RETURN OF SPRING IN GREECE. (*B.*)

"Hushed is the howl of wintry breezes wild;
The purple hour of youthful spring has smiled:
A livelier verdure clothes the teeming earth;
Buds press to life, rejoicing in their birth;
The laughing meadows drink the dews of night,
And, fresh with opening roses, glad the sight;
In song the joyous swains responsive vie;
Wild music floats, and mountain melody.
Advent'rous seamen spread the embosomed sail
O'er waves light heaving to the western gale;
While village youths their brows with ivy twine,
And hail with song the promise of the vine.
In curious cells the bees digest their spoil,
When vernal sunshine animates their toil;
And little birds, in warblings sweet and clear,
Salute thee, Maia, loveliest of the year.
Thee, on their deeps, the tuneful halcyons hail,
In streams the swan, in woods the nightingale.
If earth rejoices, with new verdure gay,
And shepherds pipe, and flocks exulting play,
And sailors roam, and Bacchus leads his throng,
And bees to toil, and birds awake to song,
Shall the glad bard be mute in tuneful Spring,
And, warm with love and joy, forget to sing?"

Let us now return to Mr. Elton's preface; and we will confine ourselves to that one portion of it, in which he endeavours to raise his favourite measure of blank verse above that of rhyme, by remarking that 'Mickle himself, after jealously asserting the liberty of rhymed numbers, was content to drag the burnished chain

chain of his brethren of the couplet song.' A burnished and indeed a tarnished chain is that which some rhymers drag along: but will our critic dare to apply this to Pope?

" While still a child, nor yet a fool to fame,
Who lisp'd in numbers, for the numbers came."

Still more, we say, will he dare to apply it to Dryden; in whose better works, the Fables especially, he will find numerous and most glorious instances of a complete system of harmony, preserved through a long series of couplets; many of which flow freely into each other, and the pauses and general rhythm of which are throughout regulated, and modulated too, by the most natural perception of harmony and the most artificial distribution of it? We challenge him with his Milton in his hand:—but no; " *Nunc non erit his locus:*"—we shall be content with referring the sceptical reader, or the sceptical writer himself, to the poems which we have mentioned, for a proof of the following assertion: that rhyme, in the hand of a master, is as capable of the most musical variety of cadence as any description of blank verse has ever appeared to be. ' If this were so,' says Mr. Elton, ' and if the breaks in the sense, and the rolling pause from line to line, could be attained with equal facility by rhymed metre, the advocates for rhyme would have a clear superiority in the argument; as rhymed measure, allowing for the substitution of emphasis for quantity, would then form a very exact counterpart of the ancient versification; and would resemble it both in its singleness and connexion; in the particular harmony of the lines, and the general melody of the sentences.' The words ' melody and harmony' would surely better change their places in this sentence, whether musically or poetically speaking; the former arising from the sweetness of particular sounds, and the latter from the general adaptation of musical parts to parts: but we cannot think that Mr. Elton is a practical judge either of the one or the other. The poet (we speak courteously) who could write

' Thou, Pompey, *fear'st lest* new *exploits eclipse*,'

can have little idea of melodious sound; and he who could compose such systems of dissonance as (according to our ear) have already been represented to the reader, and more of which he may easily find in these volumes, must not be admitted to decide on questions of poetical harmony. It is indeed impossible to repress something of displeasure, when not only an authoritative tone is assumed on subjects of antient metre by a translator who pronounces Proserpina * as a fourth epitrite;

' * She lies in Proserpina's gloomy bower.'

but when a serious offence indeed, compared to the above, is committed, — namely, the seeming unconsciousness or perhaps the wilful neglect of those high claims and honours, which have been hitherto allowed to and must be for ever possessed by the great masters of English poetry.

Pained as we have been by the necessary judgment which we have passed on this work, we cannot dismiss it without a sincere tribute of repeated praise to the qualities which we have mentioned at the opening of our critique. As displaying a very considerable portion of general classical knowlege, and as introducing the mere English reader to a long series of antient authors; — whether we refer to the previous biography of each or to the Specimens themselves, considered as verbally faithful representations of the originals; — the volumes of Mr. Elton, indeed, will most probably obtain and preserve a place in many libraries.

ART. XV. *The Maskers of Moorfields;* a Vision. By the late Anthony Griffinhoof, Gentleman. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Miller. 1815.

"*DECIPIT exemplar vitiis imitabile,*" says Horace; and the little volume before us is one out of a multitude of imitations of "The Rejected Addresses," which retain all the personal satire and offence of the prototype with unhappily very little of its wit and humour. The name in the title, it is scarcely necessary to apprize our readers, is fictitious: but the long and absurd preface might have led us rather to doubt that fact, had we not heard the real author mentioned with tolerable certainty, and had we not known that Griffinhoof was a *nom de guerre* already appropriated by a deservedly popular dramatic writer. The very title-page, therefore, betrays plagiarism. We forbear to quote any part of the preface, because it is the merest effort of dullness which any person can well imagine.

The work itself purports to be the account of a vision, which the author experienced in a deep slumber that fell on him in the midst of a perusal of the celebrated satire of Horace, book ii. sat. iii., on the Madness of Human Passions and Pursuits. He supposes himself transported in his dream to Moorfields, where he sees an innumerable assemblage of persons, and is told that they all assemble there once in the year at a grand masquerade, as the condition of their being allowed to remain at large, and to follow each the bent of his madness, in the remaining 364 days. The author accordingly commences his review of the surrounding multitude, and finds them, in course, divided into various groupes and parties, according to the

the different incitements of "the foul fiend." He is conducted through the throng by the genius of Caprice, who is manager and director of the masquerade, under the name of "Signor Bedlamado;" and this master of the ceremonies explains to him the peculiar characters of the several masks that successively present themselves, with the reasons and causes of the various follies of which they are guilty. Our readers will naturally conclude that the characters thus brought under review are all public, and for the most part literary or political. We shall make a few extracts with which they will probably be amused, though the humour is of the most ordinary cast.

'Upon this he hurried me, without farther ceremony, into the midst of the crowd, where the first objects, that particularly took my attention, were two figures habited in the old Roman costume, and one of whom was very earnestly reciting some lines from a paper, which he held in his hand. What are these? exclaimed I. They are father and son, replied my conductor, who, having a strong desire to pass for pantomimic poets, appear in the characters of the two famous Roman mimics, Leberius and Publius, and wish to draw the attention of the company to an address, which they have written, on the opening of this masquerade. They have already tried, till they are hoarse, for a hearing, but have not been able to make any advance beyond the first couplet, which, if you are very attentive, you may contrive to hear, notwithstanding the confusion of shouts and hisses, that accompany every attempt to recite them. Upon this, I strained my organs of hearing to their utmost stretch, and, after two or three efforts, caught the following lines, which were delivered by the son with all the airs of a posture-master, while his father accompanied him with the finest grimaces of an Italian fiddler.

"When energizing objects men pursue,
What are the prodigies they cannot do?"

I had no sooner heard this, than my curiosity was raised to the loftiest pitch, to know what would follow so high-flown and promising an exordium; when on a sudden a mask, in the dress of a Turkish pilgrim, started from the surrounding multitude, and, snatching the address from the two Roman ballad-singers, applied it without farther ceremony to his posteriors.

'What the devil can all this mean, cried I, Signor Bedlamado, and, pray, who is the impertinent fellow, that treated these pantomimic bards so contemptuously? Oh, returned the master of the ceremonies, he is a young nobleman, and one of the *genus irritabile*, who has shewn his resentment in this manner against the poor mimics, because they attempted to set up their address against one, which he has just been delivering to a private circle, in another part of the ground, with the greatest applause. But, between ourselves, I do not think, that one is much better than the other: for the success of the Turkish pilgrim is at least as much owing to the partiality of his friends, as to the intrinsic merits of his address. And I cannot

help regretting, that no better candidate has offered himself, so as to put an end to the contest between him and the mimics. But the fact is, that, according to the laws of this masquerade, no poet of superior excellence can be admitted; while, on the contrary, no persons are more worthy of a place in it, than those smatterers in verse, in which this city abounds. Then, said I, does the young patrician bard, whom we have just seen, come within this last description? Why, perhaps not, resumed my companion; but, at any event, his muse is of such a gloomy misanthropic character, as sufficiently to entitle the noble lord to take part in the masquerade: and, indeed, the address, of which I have been speaking, is itself, independent of any other qualification, a sufficient passport to this place.'

From poets, the author proceeds to pamphleteers and periodical political writers, whom he obligingly describes under the character of scavengers; and he then comes to a groupe of persons characterized as projectors, chiefly of the senatorial order, whom his conductor rouses one by one to display their peculiarities.

'Upon this he applied his bellows to the ear of the nearest senator (who, by the bye, I should observe, was dressed in the character of Guy Fawkes), and, squeezing the bladders of faction and discontent, pitched him from his seat with such a spring, that I thought he would have overturned the table, with all the projectors in the bargain. However, I was surprised to find, that they were so intent on their speculations, as not to be, in the least, disconcerted by the shock. When the discomposed senator had regained his legs, he began in the most furious manner, to inveigh against ministers, for not building a new parliament-house instead of the present, which, he said, was by far of too modern a make, and, besides, not half large enough for all that ought to be admitted as members, and who, he said, if they had justice done them, would amount, at least, to ten thousand. Upon this, opening a dark lanthorn, which he held in his hand, he read aloud, from an old musty parchment, the following project. "A plan for blowing up both houses of parliament, and for restoring the ground, whereon they stand, to its original state; and for erecting in their stead a new senate-house, to be called a Pandæmonium." Having read this, he began to descant, with great vehemence, on the merits of the project, which, he protested, would not cost the nation half as much gunpowder as had been consumed in one week by our army in Spain. He then dwelt very earnestly on the subject of the Pandæmonium itself, for proposing which he claimed considerable merit, as he hoped thereby to restore the parliament-house to its primitive splendour; since he meant, that his Pandæmonium should, in every respect, resemble the parliament-house of antiquity of that name, which, as it was the first ever built, ought to be a model for all future ones. He was going on, in the same violent strain, to explain another project for "blowing up all the jails in the kingdom, beginning with the Tower," when he was stopt by a voice from the crowd, requesting to know, as he had thought proper only to advert to the expence of the

the gunpowder, who was to defray the cost of erecting his proposed Pandæmonium, which promised to be no trifle, if it was, as he said, in every respect to resemble its ancient prototype, of which Milton gives so magnificent a description? Our projector seemed quite set down by this simple question; for he slunk away, like Ajax's ghost, without deigning to give any answer.'

This may perhaps be deemed one of the best drawn portraits: but we forbear to give the Signor's explanation of the character, being of opinion that the allusions are quite plain enough to indicate the bearing of the intended satire. Some humour likewise marks the following characters:

'I was hardly recovered from my surprise at this proceeding, before we were met by two masks, dressed as Lords of the States General of Holland. Their grave and solemn demeanour evidently marked the satisfaction they derived from their assumed characters; which I understood, however, they had chosen, principally, on account of the convenience of the Dutch dress, which is so admirably adapted to the hinder accomplishments, for which these persons were famed, and on which they piqued themselves not a little. And, indeed, upon a nearer observation I found, that their high mightinesses were not, without reason, proud of the parts in question; their estimation of which they manifested by continually complimenting each other on their posterior qualifications. While they were engaged in this interchange of civilities, my conductor took the opportunity of informing me, that these characters, who were two peers of the realm, belonged to a certain party, who measured their political sagacity by the breadth of their rumps, and that, being found to possess a greater circumference in that quarter than the rest of their fraternity, they had risen, as a matter of course, to the head of it. I could not help smiling at this information, not only because it was quite contrary to the laws of gravity, that the faculty of ascending should increase with the weight of the body, but because, as I told Signor Bedlamado, it put me in mind of a certain religious sect of whom I had read, who placed all their piety in the length of their beards. This, he allowed, might have furnished the hint to the party we were now speaking of; but he thought it more probable, that they had an eye to the obsequious court generally paid to ministers of state, (in which capacity these two masks had once served, for a short time, to the great amusement of the country,) which made it necessary, that they should be provided with a larger share of fundamentals than other people.'

We can make room for only one other extract: but it will be rather a long one.

'As the day was now far advanced, my Cicerone proposed, that we should make the best of our remaining time, and we accordingly hastened along to take a view of the other characters. We had not proceeded far, before we were met by a string of male and female masks, walking in couples, and to all appearance as lovingly attached to one another as so many turtles; for never had I before witnessed

witnessed such billing and cooing as passed between them. What a gratifying sight! I exclaimed, what fondness, what fidelity! How is it possible, that persons, possessed of such amiable feelings, can be deemed worthy of an exhibition at this place? Is an attachment, apparently so pure and disinterested, to be regarded only as an insanity? If so, continued I, I assure you, Signor Bedlamado, I have no great anxiety to preserve my senses in love matters. My conductor, at this, burst into a violent fit of laughter, which would not permit him, for some time, to inform me, that the scene before me was all an illusion. The couples, said he, who seem to you so affectionately united, are all married pairs, and notwithstanding present appearances have no more real love for each other, than if they had been so many Christians and Turks linked together. On the contrary, all the female masks, you now see, have at other times their *cicisbees* always in attendance, who, I assure you, have no reason to repine at the superior claims of the husbands to their mistresses' favours. The husbands, therefore, I need not add, are all knights of the antient order of cuckoldom, and as they, on the other hand, are not without their *chères amies*, they are so far from being ashamed of their condition, that they regard the gilt horns, with which you now see their vizors surmounted, as at once ornamental and honourable. They are, for the most part, men of rank, and many of them officers lately returned from abroad, whose wives have, out of pure patriotism, taken care, that their foreign services should not be any detriment to the due discharge of their duties at home. For you know, added Signor Bedlamado with an arch smile, there are some duties, which may be fulfilled quite as well by proxy as principal. But come, continued he, I shall now have an opportunity of executing the promise I made respecting my inflator, which, I find, I shall have occasion to use here with a vengeance. For it is time, these ladies and gentlemen should be roused out of the amorous trance, into which they have fallen, and for which I can only account by supposing, that they have mistaken one another for their respective mistresses and gallants.

He had scarcely spoken, before I perceived the whole groupe to be thrown into the strangest disorder, somewhat like the effect of an electric shock; and which, my conductor informed me, was occasioned by a strong gust emitted from the various bladders of libertinism, nonchalance, and inconstancy; and from which he had inflated the masks in question, according to their peculiar necessities. The tender sayings and rapturous dalliances, I had just witnessed, were, in an instant, exchanged for all the varied expressions of indifference and disgust. The affectionate wife was converted, as if by magic, into a tyrannical mistress; while the doating husband shrunk at once into a henpecked cornuto. One lady tore herself from the arms of her spouse, to fly to those of a *petit maitre* of a dancing-master, who, I learnt, had availed himself of the military duties of the latter, to instruct her in the steps at present most in vogue with the *beau monde*; while her forsaken partner contented himself by threatening her with the vengeance of Doctors' Commons. Another broke her conjugal restraint, to fulfil an appointment with a paramour from the

the Temple, who waited for her in a distant part of the ground; while her lord and master, an Irish colonel, consoled himself for her loss with a Portuguese nun, whom, like another Achilles, he had borne away in triumph from a brother officer in the Peninsula.

'In this manner did the whole string of fair maskers drop away; while their cornuted husbands, either satisfied themselves with a momentary ebullition of rage, or pocketed the affront with the most obsequious *bienséance*. One of them, in particular, I observed resigning his better half (who, by the bye, with respect to size, was a pretty good half too) with as much complaisance as if he had been entreating some particular favour from the stately mask, to whom he presented her, and who, my companion told me in a half whisper, was a personage of the highest distinction. He moreover assured me, that this silly cuckold of a husband, who was a peer of the realm, considered himself highly honoured by the distinction thus enjoyed by his consort, who, in her turn, was rather raised, than degraded, in the fashionable world by this piece of gallantry. But this can only be, said I, interrupting him, because the present refinements on the vices of high life render a reciprocity of connivance, if not of open countenance, absolutely necessary to keep up the society, which, as it originates in what is called fashion, must be supported even by its excesses. Accordingly we cannot be surprised, that the "*hanc veniam petimusque damusque vicissim*" of Horace should have become the rule and standard of fashionable morals.'

By this time, the reader will probably have had enough of this performance; and we can easily imagine what his judgment of it will be. The thought is not amiss; and, had it been treated with genuine humour, and without acrimony, it might have made a very entertaining little *jeu d'esprit*:—but personal satire is a most difficult weapon to manage dexterously; and it is one of which the use cannot be too much deprecated, unless the edge and point of it can be so well concealed as to act while it is scarcely perceptible. The present author, however, has always kept it in full sight, "cutting and thrusting" with much violence and roughness. The metaphorical representations of the follies intended to be satirized are for the most part puerile, coarse, or nonsensical; and we are sure that every body will be disposed to regard these as the least offensive terms that apply to satire in which the plans, that have been so wisely and liberally proposed for diminishing the number of capital punishments, are compared to the invention of patent pipes to be placed in the throats of criminals who are executed;—in which the public press is likened to a cauldron of filth, whence a herd of scavengers are for ever splashing the bystanders, and 'in particular those wearing rich coronets, whose heads are higher than the rest;'—and in which the noble system of extending the benefits of education, without reference to religious distinctions, is represented by the picture

picture of a schoolmaster obliging his scholars under nine years of age to write commentaries on the Bible. Perhaps, however, it may be objected to these remarks that they are more serious than the occasion warrants; and, in truth, we are very little disposed to break a butterfly, or a beetle, on the wheel. We shall therefore take our leave of 'The Maskers of Moorfields,' with merely observing that no species of publication less deserves or justifies the levity and forbearance of criticism, than that in which an author sets himself up as the censor of his neighbours.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR SEPTEMBER, 1815.

POETRY.

Art. 16. *Ode on the Victory of Waterloo.* By Elizabeth Cobbold. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Valour has always been the admiration of the ladies, and with poetical ladies it must be an inspiring subject. When, moreover, the strongest patriotic feelings are associated with the contemplation of one of the most splendid and decisive victories of modern times, we may expect from a female muse something creditable to her fame. We are ready to own that the lady before us discovers an animation which we must applaud, and touches the strings of her martial lyre with considerable effect. She begins with a glance at the delusive peace of the last year; notices the return of Bonaparte from Elba to Paris, his preparation for war, his vigorous attack on the Prussians and British, his repulse, flight, and degradation; and, lastly, sings the establishment of the tranquillity and prosperity of Europe by the Genius of Britain, who may be termed the Empress of the Sea and the Guardian of the Western World. If the rhymes and quantity of this Ode should not be found quite perfect, the general march of the verse is commendable. The firmness and self-devotion of our warriors in this memorable day are well displayed:

'But O what song the praise can tell
Of those who, self-devoted, fell,
When ev'ry gallant leader fought
As if that glorious day he sought
To win as bright a wreath from Fame
As circles Wellington's immortal name?
Each persevering soldier too,
A leader in that battle grew,
And felt as resolute in fight,
As firm, in British hardihood,
As though upon his single might
His country's bulwark stood.

'A wall

'A wall of life the serried square appears,
In mute and horrible array
Of motionless protruded spears: ——
The fierce steed trembles to essay
The fatal charge, and starting back,
Regardless of the spur or rein,
Shrinks, snorting, from the vain attack:
Urg'd on again to brave the shock,
His madd'ning cries the effort mock,
And wildly o'er the plain,
Spurning control, the chargers fly,
With shiver'd bit and bursting girth;
Till sweeps the thundering grape-shot bye,
And hurls, in dread fraternity,
The unbroken ranks to earth!

'Ev'n as they stood in death they lay: —
The glazing eye, the livid brow,
Still frown'd defiance on the foe;
Each breast high swoln still seem'd to feel,
Each stiffen'd hand still grasp'd the steel,
In that same mute and horrible array.

'As fell that brother band, what cries
From England, Scotland, Erin rose!
What shouts of vengeance rent the skies!
How shrank appall'd the startled foes!
Yet, furious in the fight,
Of cuirass'd strength and numbers vain,
They turn'd like rabid wolves again,
With shrieking yell, and savage might:
Then Wellington's inspiring glance
Beam'd on the Brunswick's noble band,
As, proudly graceful in command,
He led the charge, and wav'd his hand
Indignant tow'rds the host of France.
As Britain's sons the signal saw,
Burst from their line the loud "*Hurrah!*"
And by revenge and valor driv'n,
They rush'd, the thunderbolts of heav'n;
Then Gallia's falt'ring ranks *recoil'd*
In terror and confusion *wild*,
And in their rapid racing strife,
Each fled for individual life,
As not alone from Death they flew
But all Hell's added horrors too.'

The discomfited Napoleon has next his picture drawn:

'—— In shameless flight,
Wrapt in the robes of selfishness and night,
He left his scatter'd host,
And to the guilty city flew,

In

In hopes with plausible and lying boast,
O'er Anarchy's unsteady crew,
His dream of Empire to renew.

'Yes, he whom Faction proudly styl'd
"The Arbiter of Fate;"
"Delighted Valor's fav'rite Child"
"The brave, the wise, the fortunate;—"
Yes, he, Napoleon! Godlike Man!
Philosophy's and Reason's pride,
Of western Empire giant Lord,
Whom Treason lov'd, and Infidels ador'd,
From the first turn of battle's tide
In abject terror ran.'

The profits of this poem are to be appropriated to the Waterloo subscription.

Art. 17. *Prince Malcolm:* in Five Cantos; with other Poems. By John Doddridge Humphreys, junior. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

'Prince Malcolm' is a new version of "Macbeth,"—a most perilous undertaking for any author; and the present writer has been far from successful in his attempt to give it a new interest. The tale opens with Malcolm's arrival at Glamis Castle, which is held by Dannark, a base creature of Macbeth, and who had been instrumental in the murder of Duncan. The prince comes in while the supper (that is, in poetic language, the banquet,) is on the table, and there he meets with Dannark, who looks suspiciously at him; and Helen, an interesting young lady, who looks sweetly at him, and sings a song: soon after which, he goes to bed, where he is found out by a monk, in the dead of the night, who informs him that he is in the castle of the murderer of Duncan his father, and cautions him to quit it before he is discovered. On rising in the morning, he learns that he must wait a few hours, his horse being quite exhausted; accordingly, he sets out about noon, and is scarcely gone when blood-hounds (which, we presume, were sent in pursuit of him by Macbeth,) trace him to the Castle, and Dannark is very unjustly suspected of having concealed him or favoured his escape. Dannark, however, clears himself from this suspicion, and points out to the pursuers the road taken by the prince; who is closely followed, and obliged to swim the Tay, after which he eludes the pursuit and arrives in England: where his cause is espoused by the King, and Siward is sent with an army to replace him on the throne of Scotland. This army is joined by Macduff and other chiefs, and is ultimately successful: Helen proves to be Margaret, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, which discovery is made by a minstrel whom she accidentally meets at the cottage of a peasant to whom she is much attached; and the whole ends with the marriage of Malcolm and Margaret, in the true style of poetry, and in perfect consistency with history.

Mr. Humphreys shall now speak for himself. The following is the opening of the third canto:

'Tis

'Tis sweet to watch the fitful cloud,
When pensive ev'ning spreads her veil —
And all seems wrapp'd in night's thick shroud,
To list and hear the rustling gale:

O! sweet to mark the pale moon's light,
When first her soft and modest beam,
Conquers the cold and sullen night,
With gentle charm to paint the scene:

And then to think on days long past,
Which once were busy, bright, and gay;
In mem'ry's eye now fading fast,
Gone like the dew of early day!

Life's dazzling, bright, and vivid scene,
With all its pleasure, hope, and fear,
Fades like the fleeting, passing dream;
Nor leaves a trace of joy or care.'

The most striking incident in the tale is Malcolm's escape from the blood-hounds, which is thus described:

Malcolm's bold and generous steed
Now scour'd the plain with headlong speed,
And as he clear'd the echoing ground
In distance sunk the horrid sound.

But 'tis not speed their arts can foil;
Malcolm's bold steed now sinks with toil;
Their mingling din is heard again,
And fast upon the Prince they gain.

The smoking steed was sore distress'd,
But forward still with spirit press'd;
A charger he well-tried in war;
Again he left the blood-hounds far:

Right swift he dash'd o'er hill and dale,
And proudly snorting, snuff'd the gale; —
Before him now, and in his way,
He met the dashing waves of Tay.

I ween, the Prince felt black despair; —
To ford the tide, no man would dare;
To meet the foe was certain death;
His blood alone must glut Macbeth.

The blood-hound's yell, and the horn's shrill blast,
Now seem'd to say, all hope was past:
And now upon the bank of Tay,
With naked brand, he stands at bay.

'Tis better far to stem the tide,
Than cruel fate from ruffian bide;
For, if ingulf'd in the river deep,
'Tis but to die, and sink to sleep.

The

'The daring steed now plung'd in Tay,
Dashing aside the foaming spray;
Young Malcolm too did saddle leave,
With stalworth arm the wave to cleave.

'Now o'er their heads the waters close;
And now again they struggling rose,
And swam with courage firm and bold,
While big with death the black waves roll'd.

'The ruffian rout soon reach'd the strand,
And with loud curse each other brand;
For all their toil reap'd nought but shame;
For them to 'tempt the waves were vain.

'The daring Prince too made the land,
And wav'd on high his trusty brand;
And loudly swore, by th' howling flood,
He'd drench the tyrant's hold in blood.'

This is perhaps the best passage in the poem. Mr. Humphreys's rhyming creed is very lax. Such rhymes as *soon* and *groom*, *Wassail* and *Castle*, *clean'd* and *seem'd*, *ween* and *dream*, are of frequent occurrence; to say nothing of *cheer* and *care*, *keep* and *fleet*, *longer* and *ponder*, &c. — The miscellaneous poems are of nearly the same character with the principal piece; they display no great genius, and a carelessness which is unpardonable. Indeed, we think that more is imputable to want of care than to want of ability; since, though the author does not appear to possess those talents which would intitle him to the character of a real poet, he might probably attain that of an interesting and pretty versifier, if he would take more pains with his language, his rhyme, and his metre. To do this, he must become more familiar with the old and standard writers of our language; and less disposed to copy those of the present day, whose merit is in too many instances little more than the triumph of genius over a bad manner and a faulty taste.

Art. 18. *The Cossack:* A Poem, in Three Cantos, with Notes. 8vo. pp. 85. Baldwin and Co. 1815.

In shape, in size, in tone, in temper, lo! the exact counterpart of "*The Corsair.*" *Oh! si* sic *omnia!* but alas! some trifling requisites are wanting to complete the likeness:

"Look here upon this picture and on this,
The counterfeit presentment of two brothers.
This was" — *the Corsair.*

The Cossack (of the Don description) resembles him indeed most strongly in outward form; and if the name of Murray had been substituted for that of Baldwin in the title-page, we should have started at the Ghost of Lara. Fleshless and bloodless indeed is *this* apparition.

Dropping all our "unsavoury similes," we shall proceed to the genuine Cossack; whom, under the name of Kouteskoff, we beg leave now to introduce to our readers, — on horseback:

'Kosakki-Donski's attaman
Sends him to Volga's tide,
Where, ere it reaches Astracan,
A brother horde reside.
Tidings he bears of gathering foe,
Which Ordinsk's chief must quickly know;
And, followed by his faithful train,
He scours o'er mountain, dell, and plain.
And will he all the livelong night
Continue such a falcon flight?
If so, ere darkness o'er him roll,
He'd almost reach the frozen pole.'

This pursuer of the Polar Star arrives at the cottage of Yemkero; where, after he has barely warmed himself,

'What meets his view? — what vision bright
Now bursts upon his ravished sight?
A female form with azure eye,
With long and auburn hair,
A skin of snow's unspotted dye,
A mild enchanting air;
A robe of fur her form embraced,
A rustic zone enclasp'd her waist
With neat unstudied care:
There was a something in her face,
That seem'd as if the softest grace
Had loved to linger there.
Beneath her breast of ivory hue,
The feeling, pure as morning's dew,
Waked every ermine thought,
That; fed by virtue's limpid tide,
Gave to her bosom in its glide
All with perfection fraught:
So much of heaven there dwelt within,
As drove to distance lurking sin:
It seem'd as if, at hour of birth,
Some angel stole her from the earth,
And rear'd her mid this lonely wild,
Of innocence and peace the child.'

The imitation we conceive to be sufficiently obvious in the above passage; especially in the '*something* in her face,' and the '*so much of heaven:*' — but what upon earth can be meant by '*ermine* thoughts,' the *Judges* only can decide.

The Cossack, whom we last saw riding as if the very devil was at his heels, now

'—— dashes for a space,
Then moves him with a tardier pace,

Gives to his courser roller'd steel,
With all the force of battle-heel *';

or, as the author says in another passage,

'With such a very self of zeal.'

In short, he is in love. He now meets Holagou. Holagou is the leader of a band of Calmuck Tartars, with whom and Messrs. Kouteskoff and Co. the most common-place fight ensues which ever was fought in ballad epic. Our friend K. buries them all, and then gallops away, "with his galloping dreary dun." Then he goes to a 'Cossack-ball' at Astracan; where, without wiping the blood off his beard, he enters the room with most exemplary *sang froid*, and stops the music:

'The music's sound is staid — 'tis all surprise,
His look so warlike — his such ample size;
High o'er the throng he towers, though in the scene
Is many a warrior of majestic mien:
He strides across the hall; a look of fright
Is seen in ladies' eyes at such a sight,
So fierce he seem'd, for still upon his beard
The bloody token of the strife was smear'd;
But when he roll'd his large blue eye around,
The ladies' souls another feeling found.'

We think that this insinuation is rather indelicate: but, as the Don Cossack is probably of a different opinion, we shall proceed without farther comment, and observe that he now goes back, after a most rough and Russian appetite at supper, to Yemkero's cottage, and finds it —— empty. A 'meagre Turk' has been there, to procure his love for the Pasha's seraglio, and has taken her away, with his band of brother procurers: her father has gone after her; and K. sets off after both. The Turks are so frightened at the 'ample size' and unwashed beard of K., that they release his love, Zamasta; who is then immediately married to the Don, for any thing that we know to the contrary: but the author refers us 'to the fondest pair that all the world contains,' the real winners of the Flitch of Bacon, for the knowlege of a secret which, it seems, must not be communicated to the uninitiated reader.

EDUCATION.

Art. 19. *Steps to Sense Verses*, or a Set of Exercises to be rendered into Latin Hexameters and Pentameters. For the *Use of Schools*. 12mo. Law and Co. 1815.

'Steps to *Sense* Verses!' delightful *gradus ad Parnassum* for a very large portion of our contemporary poets! We can fancy the doors of Messrs. Law and Whitaker, No. 13. Ave Maria Lane, actually blockaded with the chariots, hackney-coaches, and taxed

* This sort of line is truly Scottish, or rather Walter Scottish: — but the object of this Don Cossack's ambition is doubtless another author.

carts,

carts, of Messrs. A, B, C, D, E, F, G, &c. among the high and the middling multitudes of rhymers, and the rest of the alphabet on foot, to secure this preliminary and most necessary help to their compositions. Alas! however, the school-boy alone, and his instructor, are benefited by this little publication; to the former of whom it will be the means, if rightly used, of much improvement in Latin prosody, while to the latter it will save the necessity of accumulating much manuscript sense and nonsense of the kind in question. Only let the publishers beware, when they deliver the Key to this volume to any applicant, (for a Key is advertized with it,) that he has at least a large bushy wig, or a threadbare pair of velveteen breeches, to verify his title to the character of *Tutor* instead of that of *Pupil*.

Art. 20. *Guy's New Latin Primer*, or Companion to Latin Grammars. In Three Parts. 1. Contains regular Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns to be declined, and Verbs to be conjugated; according to the Examples of those Parts of Speech in the Accidence. 2. Contains the Exceptions to the three Special Rules for the Genders; and the Irregulars in Declension and Conjugation, so arranged as to be with facility understood and retained. 3. Exhibits such irregular Declensions and Conjugations, at length, as are not usually found in School Grammars. By Joseph Guy, junior. Author of the English School Grammar. 12mo. Baldwin and Co.

The father, we believe, of this grammarian is author of several useful works of an elementary description; and the son treads *pari passu aquis* in the same respectable though lowly path. Considered as a mere companion to the Grammar, (all that it pretends to be,) in the earliest rudiments of classical education, this little book may be safely recommended. Whether, after all the similar works, such a publication "be much wanted," is indeed not so clear a point: but we thus obtain at least a variety of choice among books of this description. We agree with the author that 'the exercise here required, by affording an interesting variety of school-business, will fill up the intervals of grammar-tasks; and that something of the reason and utility of the labour will *illumine* the learner's mind, even during the most obscure stage of classical learning.'

GEOGRAPHY.

Art. 21. *A Treatise on the Construction of Maps*; in which the Principles of the Projections of the Sphere are demonstrated, and their various practical Relations to Mathematical Geography deduced and explained, &c. &c. By Alexander Jamieson. 8vo. pp. 188. 9s. Boards. Law.

It is very necessary, in conveying to the student in geography a knowlege of the various bearings, extent, boundaries, situations, &c. of different countries, to have some means of fixing them on his mind with associations of a different sort; such as peculiarity of soil, natural productions, manners of the people, the scites of great battles, &c. which have a tendency to make a more permanent impression than any that can be effected without them: but, as it is

difficult to find subjects always interesting, it is likewise not easy to fix the geographical situations of places on the mind of a youth so as to be essentially useful to him. The only means of supplying such a want of association is by the construction of maps; since that practice exhibits the principles on which this useful science is founded, in the clearest and most obvious point of view.

The first general ideas of latitude, longitude, and the several artificial lines of the sphere, can be perhaps in no way better explained than by a terrestrial globe: but for the rest we have always thought that the time, which is bestowed in schools on what is called "learning the use of the globes," is thrown away; and it is frequently the means of imparting very incorrect notions to the student, particularly with respect to the celestial sphere, which are more difficult to eradicate than to implant.

If, then, the construction of maps is absolutely necessary to convey a correct idea of geography, a well digested treatise on this subject, reduced to the level of the comprehension of youth, must be considered as a very useful performance; and such an one we conceive Mr. Jamieson's work to be. It is divided into ten sections, viz. Preliminary Remarks on the Nature of the Terrestrial Globe, its Circles and their Uses; Preliminary Observations on Maps and Charts; on the Principles of the Orthographic, the Stereographic, and the Globular Projection of the Sphere; the Geometrical and Trigonometrical Projections of the Sphere on the Plane of the Meridian and the Equator; the Principles of Mercator's Projection; on the Origin and Properties of the Rhumb Line, or Loxodromic Curve; Meridional, Equatorial, and Horizontal Construction of Maps; on the Principles and Practice of developing a Spheric Surface on a Plane; Geometrical Projections of various Maps; on the Construction and Use of the Analemma; to which is subjoined an Appendix, containing several interesting and valuable notes.

It is difficult, in a case of this kind, to make selections which shall be a fair specimen of the general execution of the work: but the following brief extract may shew the familiar manner in which the different subjects are here illustrated;—it relates to the author's explanation of the principles of stereographic projection:

'In the stereographic projection of the sphere, the eye is supposed to be situated somewhere upon the surface of the sphere to be represented, and looking towards the opposite concave surface. Imagine to yourself, that there is before you a glass sphere, hung, like the terrestrial globe, in the position of a right sphere; that this glass sphere has cut upon its circumference, all the lines and circles of the globe, and that those lines and circles are opaque; that within this glass sphere, there is a glass plane, coinciding with the points Aries and Libra, and by consequence, with the wooden horizon of the frame in which your sphere is supposed to be hung; then this glass plane meeting the inner surface, or circumference, of the sphere, would represent the plane of a great circle of the sphere passing through Aries, the north pole, Libra, and the south pole. Conceive, also, that there is a perpendicular drawn from the centre of this glass plane or circle, to meet the surface of the sphere precisely where the meridian

meridian of 90 degrees is intersected by the equator, reckoning the degrees to commence at the first point of Aries. Suppose, then, that your eye is placed in this point of the surface, that is, exactly at the extremity of the aforesaid perpendicular, and that you are looking towards the opposite hemisphere, on which you would see all the opaque meridians and parallels, and that straight lines were drawn from those meridians and parallels respectively to your eye, those straight lines would necessarily pass through the glass plane within the sphere, and on this glass plane would be drawn the true representation of all the lines upon the surface of the concave hemisphere. This, then, would be the stereographic projection of the sphere; and when you look at a skeleton planisphere, you have before you the identical picture that we have been imagining. By turning your glass sphere once round, and viewing the other concave circumference, you would have another planisphere depicted on the glass plane, and these would severally represent the eastern and western hemispheres.'

We conclude by recommending this work to every student who wishes to obtain a correct knowlege of the principles of geography, and the construction of geographical maps.

POLITICS.

Art. 22. *Carpe Diem;* or the true Policy of Europe, at the present Juncture, with regard to France. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

Carpe diem; — i. e. "being interpreted," In politics, as in farming, "make hay while the sun shines;" — never lose an opportunity of turning victory to the best advantage. In applying this observation to the present state of humbled and degraded France, the author advises the allied powers to take every measure which is requisite to annihilate jacobinism, and to prevent the possibility of the return of revolutionary scenes. The Gallic throne, it is contended, must be supported, in order to prevent the overthrow of other thrones, and the revival of all the calamities of war; and it is asserted that, 'as the subversion of the throne of France must prove fatal to the repose of Europe, the powers of Europe have an undoubted right to do *whatever* is necessary, for the protection of that throne,' — even to an interference with the internal government. The principle that *the people have a right to choose their own governors*, though a maxim of the British constitution, must, it seems, be vigorously resisted, as too wild and theoretical for real practice, and calculated to produce the most disastrous consequences when it is taken up by the multitude. To the question on *Divine right*, a very vague answer is returned; and, if the power of kings should not be immediately derived from God, the people, we are told, have no right to the appointment. The allied sovereigns are here urged, at all events and against all opposition, to secure the succession of the Bourbons; and, in order to make all sure, they are advised to demand the occupation of the French fortresses. Thus the *Bourbons* are to be *kept up* by keeping *France down*. This is *Carpe diem* with a vengeance!

MEDICINE.

Art. 23. *Facts and Observations on Liver Complaints and Bilious Disorders in general;* and on such Derangements of these Organs as influence the Biliary Secretion. With Practical Deductions, drawn from a close and constant Attention to this Subject in various Climates; connected by an appropriate and successful Mode of Treatment. The whole illustrated and confirmed by an extensive Selection of Cases, demonstrating the many serious and fatal Consequences which too often arise from a mistaken View of the primary Seat of Disease. By John Faithhorn, formerly Surgeon in the East India Company's Service. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

It appears that the author of this work has had many opportunities of observing the diseases of the Liver: but he has probably magnified the importance of his experience, since he is inclined to suppose that every affection to which the human frame is subject may be traced to some mischief in this organ. We should, however, pardon him for an error of this kind, which generally attaches to an exclusive attention to any one subject, provided that we could obtain correct information respecting the symptoms of the diseases that are connected with the secretion of bile; a class of maladies which we regard as extremely important, although perhaps not so universal as Mr. Faithhorn supposes them to be.

In order to form an opinion of the author's physiology and chemistry, we may take his description of the uses and nature of bile. Its uses he states to be, to extricate chyle from chyme; to excite the peristaltic action of the intestines; to impart the yellow colour to the fæces; and to prevent the accumulation of mucus and acid in the intestines. We shall quote the account of the chemical composition of bile:

'1. It contains a large proportion of water.

'2. A substance closely resembling animal albumen.

'3. A peculiar resinous inflammable matter naturally and intimately mixed with it.

'4. Soda, forming a kind of soap or saponaceous extract.

'5. Some neutral salts;

'6. And a small quantity of oxyd of iron.

'Besides these constituents, there is a coloring and odorant matter, but it is not yet ascertained whether these are properties of any of the above-mentioned ingredients, or whether they belong to a particular substance.

'Some chemists have thought, that they could likewise detect a saccharine matter in bile, but the experiments to this purpose have by no means been conclusive.'

We observe nothing very remarkable in Mr. F.'s account of the acute hepatitis, nor does he throw any new light on its diagnosis. The treatment consists, first, in the vigorous prosecution of the antiphlogistic plan; and then in the administration of small doses of calomel, combined with ipecacuanha, and sulphate of magnesia. He afterward enters very fully into chronic hepatitis, details its symptoms at large, and endeavours to point out its connection with other diseases. We should be unwilling to charge him with inaccurracy, much

much less with wilful perversion of facts: but we must acknowlege that his descriptions do not convey any very distinct idea to our minds; nor do we perceive the effects of that great experience to which he lays claim, and which might be supposed to have given him some peculiar advantage in the detection of those nice shades which guide the discerning practitioner. It rather seems, indeed, that, wherever Mr. Faithhorn is called to a case of an obscure nature, attended with derangement of the stomach and bowels, he concludes that the liver is affected, and prescribes accordingly.

He divides the chronic affections of the liver into two stages; '1. That of a simple derangement of the hepatic functions; and 2. an actual change in the organization of this gland.' This division is founded in nature, and ought to be kept in view in practice: but it will probably not be easy to draw the line of distinction; a circumstance the less indeed to be regretted, as the same kind of treatment will generally apply to both states of the organ.

Cases are added to the volume, but they are not very instructive. The principal circumstances which they relate are that the patient's disease had been mistaken by some eminent physician, and that Mr. Faithhorn was consulted, found the complaints to be connected with the liver, and cured them. We have no personal knowlege of the writer, but justice obliges us to state that he does not impress us with a favourable opinion of his talents. We would willingly hope that his publication is not one of those which are intended to act as a species of professional advertisement for patients;—a plan that is but too common in the metropolis.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 24. *Facts and Evidences on the Subject of Baptism;* in a Letter to a Deacon of a Baptist Church. With Two Plates. By the Editor of Calmet's Dictionary of the Holy Bible. 8vo. pp. 52. 1s. Taylor, Hatton Garden. 1815.

Some real difficulty attaches to the controversy on the proper *subjects* of baptism, and it should seem that *the antient mode* of its administration is a point not easily settled. The Facts and Evidences collected in this cheap pamphlet are intended to throw light on the latter object; and, in addition to the matter contained in the letter-press, it is illustrated by two appropriate engravings, in which the argument is addressed to the eye. The writer, after having ascertained the precise meaning in Scripture of the words which we translate to *dip* and to *baptize*, and having shewn that reason and common sense have forbidden us to suppose that the persons and things there mentioned were *wholly* immersed in water, proceeds to remark with regard to the most important of all baptisms, (viz. that of the Holy Spirit,) to which water-baptism is compared, that '*plunging* was an impossibility in its administration.' When the Divine Spirit is the agent, *baptizing* is synonimous with '1. *sending down*, 2. *coming*, 3. *giving*, 4. *falling*, 5. *shedding*, 6. *pouring*, 7. *sitting* or *abiding*, 8. *anointing*; 9. *filling*, 10. *sealing*.'

'The *baptism* by the Holy Ghost, it is clear, was conferred by the *descending* of the baptismal element. Are there any instances of

the use of the word *baptism* in reference to *water*, which instances also mark the *descending* of the baptismal element? — if there are, then water-*baptism*, where described, must be taken in a sense coincident with *baptism* by the Holy Ghost, and that strictly; or else we render one part of the word of God repugnant to another.

'The first instance I refer to, is afforded by the Greek translators of Daniel, who inform us that Nebuchadnezzar in his deranged state, should be *baptized* with the dew of heaven; and this is repeated, to inform us, that he really was *baptized* with the dew of heaven; and this is repeated again; affording so many unquestionable applications of the word *baptize* to the *descent* of the dew of heaven upon Nebuchadnezzar. For, how stood this fact? The vapours raised up into the atmosphere during the heat of the day, — descended, — shed themselves, — *fell down*, — during the cooler hours of the evening and night, on the person of the unhappy Babylonian monarch: by these say the Seventy, he was *baptized*. A clearer instance of *descent* there cannot be.' —

'Again, the bird that was to be let fly away at the cleansing of the leper, was to be BAPTIZED, *dipped*, in the blood of the bird that was killed; but it is evident to common sense, that no bird could yield blood enough to admit the PLUNGING of the living bird; of cedar-wood; scarlet-wool, and hyssop; which also were to be *dipped*. In fact, I am not aware that the word *baptize* is ever used in the LXX. in the sense of PLUNGING; nor is it so understood by our translators, except in one instance for the sake of a strength of expression.'

These quotations are supposed clearly to indicate the nature of baptisms among the Jews; and, as no specific rule is given in the N. T. for the administration of Christian baptism, it may be presumed that the apostles in this instance adopted the usage of their country. We leave others to decide what stress should be laid on Mr. Salt's account of an Abyssinian baptism, where *washing* is preparatory to pouring on the head of the baptized: but the plates here given, which contain antient representations of baptism, certainly merit notice, though they belong not to the first century. They may be regarded as engraved or sculptured traditions. The first contains several representations of the baptism of Christ, copied from the ornaments of antient churches; in which he is exhibited standing or partly immersed in the Jordan, while water is poured on his head by the Baptist. The second affords a view of those baths with which every Roman family was furnished; and it is added, by way of comment, 'Since, then, such baths were common if not rather *universal*, in Roman families, Cornelius, himself a Roman, required no *tank* in which to be baptized. The Phillippian jailor, having used a bath for the purpose of washing the stripes of his prisoners, might subsequently use the very same bath for the purpose of *washing away his sins*; and of receiving *baptism*, afterwards, in the name of the Lord.'

The additional considerations, including comments on the ὕδατα πολλὰ of John, iii. 23. and on the apostle's phrase *buried with him in baptism*, Rom. vi. 4., will perhaps be regarded as more laboured than satisfactory.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 25. *A Statement of the Facts connected with a Precognition,* taken in the College of Glasgow, on the 30th and 31st of March, 1815. By Professor Mylne. 8vo. pp. 64. Longman and Co.

We are informed, and we can readily credit the information, that the case to which this pamphlet relates has excited general attention and produced a strong sensation in Scotland. The circumstances are these: Professor Mylne having preached in the Chapel of the College of Glasgow on the Sunday after it was known there that Bonaparte had returned from Elba to Paris, some person or persons, either from the grossest misapprehension or from pure malignity, laid a secret information against the Professor, charging him with high treason and blasphemous perversion of Holy Scripture: in consequence of which the Sheriff and Procurator-Fiscal of Lanarkshire took a precognition, or preparatory investigation, into the conduct of the Professor, in his official station as chaplain in the College Chapel on the 26th of March last. It appeared that the preacher selected for his text, Acts, xi. 1—19.; that the Psalm given out was the cviith, to which he had regularly come in the course of his duty in the chapel; and that the morning-service was concluded by singing a part of the xxvith Scripture Translation. On this evidence, and on some expressions in the devotional part of the service, in which the Professor (like a true Christian) prayed that 'the Governments of Europe, by the wisdom and justice of their administration, might every where engage the attachment and fidelity of their subjects,' a serious charge was clandestinely preferred against the Professor, of wishing the subversion of the government of the Bourbons, and of applying to Bonaparte language solely appropriated by Revelation to the blessed Saviour of the world. The Faculty of the College of Glasgow, as well as the party accused, were indignant at an insinuation so totally unfounded, and requested the Lord Advocate to give up the clandestine accusers, on the deposition of whom the precognition was taken: this, however, the Lord Advocate declined; though he did not hesitate to exonerate the Professor from the charges so stupidly, if not maliciously, preferred against him. We are not surprized that the Professor was dissatisfied with the conduct of the Lord Advocate on this occasion; but still, as the whole precognition had not brought forwards a single testimony that could furnish ground even for a plausible surmise that the slightest crime or criminal intention was imputable to him, the Professor completely triumphs. Indeed, he declares that, when he read the words in the xxvith Scriptural Translation, beginning, "Behold he comes, your Leader comes, with might and honour crown'd," 'Bonaparte was no more in his thoughts than the Lord Advocate of Scotland.'

Something like French *espionage* appears in this transaction, in which the accuser is concealed, and his declaration is withholden. The Professor personally complains also of the Lord Advocate's *precipitation* and injurious conduct, and represents it as pregnant with evil in a public point of view. His pamphlet is not only temperately written, but is throughout well argued; and for his fellow-subjects he may well lament that, if the determined silence of the Lord Advocate

vocate on this point be made a precedent, and the name of base informers be secreted, 'persons who are totally innocent may incur all the *odium* which the public throws on the guilty,' though they may be free from the sentence of the law.

The *very sharp look out* for treason, by those *very* officious loyalists who laid the information against Professor Mylne, reminds us of a laughable anecdote recorded by Dr. Johnson in his life of Yalden, ("Lives of the Poets," Vol. iii. p. 165. octavo edit.) who was suspected of dangerous designs against government, because the words *thorough-paced doctrine* were found in his pocket-book. "This expression," says the biographer, "the imagination of his examiners had impregnated with treason, and the Doctor was enjoined to explain *them*. Thus pressed, he told them that the words had lain unheeded in his pocket-book from the time of Queen Anne, and that he was ashamed to give an account of them; but the truth was, that he had gratified his curiosity one day, by hearing Daniel Burgess in the pulpit, and those words were a memorial hint of a remarkable sentence by which he warned his congregation to *beware of* thorough-paced doctrine, *that doctrine, which, coming in at one ear, paces through the head, and goes out at the other.*"

Poor Dr. Yalden's explanation raised a laugh: but poor Professor Mylne, if he shames his accusers, seems to feel no mirth in his own mind, and excites none in his readers.

Art. 26. *Essays Moral and Entertaining*, on the various Faculties and Passions of the Human Mind. By the Right Hon. Edward, Earl of Clarendon. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, was born in 1608, bred to the bar, and distinguished in parliament for his steady support of the royal cause. After the death of Charles I. he withdrew into France; where he wrote an admired history of his own times, a refutation of Hobbes, some devotional works, and these Essays. At the Restoration, he returned to Great Britain, was a warm adviser of the Act of Uniformity, and attained the station of Lord Chancellor. Probably, however, Charles II. did not view with pleasure that breach of the royal word,—that dereliction of the declaration of Breda,—to which, by the Act of Uniformity, he had been reduced;—at least he withdrew his favour from the Earl of Clarendon, and suffered him to fall the victim of a parliamentary impeachment, and to close his life in France in a second exile. He died at Rouen in 1674.*

These Essays form the weakest part of his works. They were written chiefly at Montpelier, whither in 1669 he had retired under the pressure of weary sickness; and they may once have served as the pastime of idleness, or the consolation of adversity: but, in our judgment, the *ennui* must be great, and the adversity little, which could now find in them pastime and consolation. Seneca was probably the favourite reading of Mr. Hyde at the time of his writing these Essays; since the radical maxims of the discourses are frequently

* See an account of his *Religion and Policy*, written shortly before his death, Rev. Vol. lxxiv. N. S. p. 51.

borrowed

borrowed from that antient, though branched out with a fibrous, excrescent, and feeble *fungosity*. Here is the blood of Seneca indeed, but of Seneca in the warm bath: the vital energies are gone, and the florid hues are enfeebled by dilution.

We copy one of the shorter pieces:

'OF ENVY. 'Montpellier, 1670.

'If envy, like anger, did not burn itself in its own fire, and consume and destroy those persons it possesses, before it can destroy those it wishes worst to, it would set the whole world on fire, and leave the most excellent persons the most miserable. Of all the affections and passions which lodge themselves within the breast of man, envy is the most troublesome, the most restless, hath the most of malignity, the most of poison in it. The object she hath an immortal hatred to is virtue; and the war she makes is always against the best and virtuous men, at least against those who have some signal perfection. No other passion vents itself with that circumspection and deliberation, and is in all its rage and extent in awe of some controul. The most choleric and angry man may offend an honest and a worthy person, but he chuses it not; he had rather provoke a worse man, and at worst he recollects himself upon the sight of the magistrate. Lust, that is blind and frantic, gets into the worst company it can, and never assaults chastity. But envy, a more pernicious affection than either of the other, is inquisitive, observes whose merit most draws the eyes of men upon it, is most crowned by the general suffrage; and against that person he shoots all his venom, and without any noise enters into all unlawful combinations against him to destroy him: though the high condition Solomon was in kept him from feeling the effects of it, (for kings can only be envied by kings,) he well discovered the uncontroulable power of it; "wrath is cruel, and anger is outrageous; but who can stand before envy?" (Prov. xxvii. 6.) Let wrath be as cruel as it will, a stronger wrath can disarm it, or application and address can pacify it: fair words have power over it, and let anger be never so outrageous, it can be resisted, and will extinguish itself: they both give fair warning, are discovered afar off, and we have time to fight or fly; but envy hath no fixed open residence, no man knows where it dwells, nor can discern when it marches; it is a *squadroni volante*, that declares no war, but breaks into our quarters when we do not suspect it to be near us, wounds our reputation, stifles the brightness of our merit, and works even upon our friends to suspend their good opinion, and to doubt whether they are not deceived, and whether we are as good as we appear to be. If our credit be so well built, so firm, that it is not easy to be shaken by calumny and insinuation, it then over commends us, and extols us beyond reason to those upon whom we depend, till they grow jealous; and so blow us up when they cannot throw us down. There is no guard to be kept against envy, because no man knows where it dwells; and generous and innocent men are seldom jealous and suspicious till they feel the wound, or discern some notorious effect of it. It shelters itself for the most part in dark and melancholy constitutions, yet some-

sometimes gets into less suspected lodgings, but never owns to be within when it is asked for. All other passions do not only betray and discover, but likewise confess themselves; the choleric man confesses he is angry, and the proud man confesses he is ambitious; the covetous man never denies that he loves money, and the drunkard confesses that he loves wine: but no envious man ever confessed that he did envy; he commands his words much better than his looks, and those would betray him, if he had not bodily infirmities apparent enough, that those of the mind cannot easily be discovered, but in the mischief they do. Envy pretends always to be a rival to virtue, and to court honour only by merit, and never to be afflicted but on the behalf of justice, when persons less meritorious come to be preferred; and it is so far true, that it seldom assaults unfortunate virtue, and is as seldom troubled for any success, how unworthy soever, that doth not carry a man farther than the envious man himself can attain to; he envies and hates, and would destroy every man who hath better parts or better fortune than himself; and that he is not a witch proceeds only from the devil's want of power, that he cannot give him illustrious conditions, for he hath more pride and ambition than any other sort of sinner.'

Now let us mark how much false philosophy, and how much thoughtless untruth, this little disquisition contains. It is not true that envy usually destroys its possessor, before it destroys those to whom it wishes ill: — nor that envy is the most tormenting of the passions; — nor that envy hates virtue, since she takes arms not against merit, but against success, and quarrels only with *rewarded* excellence; — nor that envy enters *without noise* into combination, since it is the reverse of a silent passion, and prone even to contradictory and inconsistent carpings; — nor that kings can only be envied by kings; since they are probably least envied by those who know most of their condition; — nor that envy has no fixed or known residence, since her proper home is the bosom of an unsuccessful rival. In short, if this whole essay were to be dissected, period by period, it would be found to consist of plausible empty common-places, sounding like wholesome morality, but which, when exposed to the crucible of a critical philosophy, supply no fumes of fancy to the alembic, no drops of sense to the receiver, but all is a *caput mortuum*, dull, brittle, and dry.

Lord Clarendon's memory rather deserves the veneration of the church than of the throne; since he had less of the gentleman than of the bigot, and adhered to the monarch out of deference to the priest. Fortunate in the subject of his history, and conversant with the incidents and men which he had to paint, he has attained merited rank as a chronicler: but his other writings have the same diffuse garrulity, without original observations to record.

This republication is dedicated to the Princess Elizabeth, by the Rev. James Stanier Clarke.

Art. 27. *The Doctrine of Chances,* or the Theory of Gaming made easy to all Persons acquainted with common Arithmetic, &c. by William Rouse. 8vo. pp. 350. 15s. Boards. Lackington and Co.

The Doctrine of Chances, considered with reference to the mathematical investigations which it embraces, is perhaps one of the most difficult subjects of analysis; and it has engaged the attention of several of the most eminent mathematicians of Europe, from the date of its first introduction to the present time, when it has received a permanent form in the able hands of Laplace. We are accustomed, therefore, to look for deep analytical research, and profound investigations, in a work bearing the title of 'The Doctrine of Chances:' but nothing of that kind will be found in the present performance. The object of Mr. Rouse is to adapt his theory to the capacity of the professed gamester, whom he shrewdly supposes to be ignorant of all but the most common rules of arithmetic; and he has accordingly reduced that part of the doctrine of chances, which is connected with the usual cases of gaming, to its most simple form: thus producing a work which will probably be received with approbation in all the gaming-houses in the metropolis, and consulted in any gambling dispute with the same confidence with which our lawyers refer to Coke upon Littleton.

In the Introduction, the author enters into an explanation of the general principles of the doctrine of chances, of the symbols, notation, &c. employed in the volume, and gives a few simple cases by way of illustration. The remainder of the book is divided into five principal heads; viz. Cards, Dice, Lotteries, Horse-racing, and Miscellaneous Problems; with a number of tables for rendering the computations concise. Nothing of a very novel cast is to be expected in a work of this description; many of the general problems are found in De Moivre, Montmort, &c. which are here branched out to fit the particular cases under consideration; and in several others, in which the exact determination of the probability requires properly the summation of a series, the author has contrived to find a ready method of approximation, which is not often very wide of the truth. On the whole, we are inclined to think that Mr. Rouse is well acquainted with the subject which he has undertaken; and, if we could view the execution of the performance independently of the practice to which it relates, and of the dreadful consequences which so frequently attend a habit of gambling, we should be disposed to say that the volume was deserving of commendation: but, with reference to its object, we are sorry to see a considerable share of ingenuity employed in debasing one of the finest branches of analysis, in order to reduce it to the comprehension of gamblers and sharpers: thus rendering it subservient to one of the most pernicious passions of the human mind.

Art. 28. *Practical Observations on the Dry Rot in Timber*, &c. with Specifications for its Prevention on Board of Ships of War, and Merchant Vessels; public Buildings, Mansions, and private Dwellings: with the best System of Ventilation for Ships and Bodies of Timber, in close and confined Places. By Ralph Dodd, Civil Engineer, &c. 8vo. pp. 63. 5s. stitched. Hatchard. 1815.

If bad writing could possibly be attributed to the disease here mentioned, we should conclude that the Dry Rot had by some cruel

cruel accident found its way into Mr. Dodd's pericranium; for we do not recollect an instance in which we have been assailed with a more involved and chaotic style, by which subjects the most heterogeneous are mixed together and in one sentence. The Dedication is a curious specimen of this kind, and the first paragraph in the essay itself is not much inferior to it:

'Permit me to state, that different periods of my life have been in those situations which have given me ample opportunities of making nautical inquiries; therefore, let me beg the honour of your attention to what, I conceive, of great national importance, the Dry Rot in Timber, which has made such destructive strides in many ships of his Majesty's navy, as well as those of the Merchant service: on this subject I shall confine myself solely to my own practical remarks, although, I believe, many treatises have been written on the subject of Dry Rot in Timber, and I ought to acknowledge a neglect of not perusing them. In my researches after this Rot in shipping, I have discovered it to be a perfect fungus, of various species, the same as on shore in private houses, mansions, public buildings, &c. in many of which at this period it is making an alarming progress, and some of it, from microscopic observations, beautiful in its growth, like a well planted wood, sending its extended fibrous roots into the timber, and acting on it like a number of hydraulic pumps, or leeches on the human frame, drawing out the blood or vital stream of life; when the wood thus destroyed or rotted becomes of less specific gravity, almost as light as cork, from the loss of its fluidity, and all its elasticity, with the fibrous qualities destroyed, as it rents and cracks against the grain, and often becomes a dry powder of a brown colour, from the portion of iron it contains; and some of this rot puts on the appearance of a hoary frost, with a shamoise leather-like skin between that and the wood, while some a bushy-like fungus, to a large size. I have seen this species of the fungus almost as white, and not much unlike the nature of spongy or furzy turnip, but of a different figure, fill up the whole space of it occupied between the planking and timber of vessels; this was the case lately much to be regretted, in the Royal Sovereign Yacht at Deptford Dock Yard, when opened out for repair, although she had once before, at that place, had much done to her on account of the Dry Rot, to be regretted, because, probably, she is one of the handsomest vessels of her kind ever built, and with equal qualities for working to windward, fleetness of sailing, &c. In the examination of the Royal Charlotte Yacht, also a beautiful vessel, I found her badly affected with the Dry Rot, but of the polypetalous species.'

Mr. Dodd boasts much of his experience, and experience he may have had: but he communicates the result of it in a rambling round-about way, and repeats the same hint so often that we grow tired of his dissertation, (if so it may be called,) before we reach the end. He alarms us respecting the state of the Navy from Dry Rot, and talks of his *preventive:* but he does not inform us what are the ingredients of which it is composed. Ventilation is properly recommended; and the nearest approach to a specification of the much puffed *Dry Rot Preventive* is in the following passage:

'Although we cannot always cure many events and diseases that occur, it is often put into our hands to prevent them by a timely application of their known antidote; and as it is certain the cause of the Dry Rot in timber is at first by a fungus, and that fungus is a vegetable, therefore, of course, the greater anti-vegetable that can be applied to this timber without injury to its quality or stopping up its pores, certainly keeps this disease more remote from it: thus treating any new frame of timber, the inner and outer planking, and with the new system of internal ventilation by atmospheric air, I could pledge my existence, that the Dry Rot would not make that destructive progress it has lately unfortunately done in many vessels.'

The author talks of 'nature depositing spawn for *animated* fish,' (p. 24.) — of '*pyratus* of iron,' (p. 32.) — 'of a tribute *on* truth,' (p. 39.) — of 'a statement *by* a conscious duty,' (p. 39.) — of 'variegated scenes throwing him into situations,' (p. 43.) &c.

Before this civil engineer ventures again to publish, let him consult some person who understands composition, to teach him the necessity of arrangement and condensation.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 29. *The Reasons of the Protestant Religion:* delivered at a Monthly Association of Protestant Dissenting Ministers and Congregations, held at the Meeting House in Islington, May 4th, 1815. By John Pye Smith, D.D. 8vo. pp. 60. 2s. Conder.

This discourse is inscribed to the Marquis of Lansdowne as a warm friend of the Protestant interest, and merits the perusal of *all* its friends, on account of the clear and judicious manner in which the fundamental principles of Protestantism are exhibited. Dr. Smith is liberal without compromising the truth; and, while he favours *emancipation* of the Catholics, he gives no quarter to their religious system. With his enmity to popery, however, he does not hesitate to allow that under it much Christian good exists, and that within its pale many excellent Christians may be found: but he enters his strong protest against the *additions* which, in the shape of errors and corruptions, it has made to the primitive faith; demonstrating himself to be in every sense of the word *a Protestant*.

Dr. S. begins with denying the authority of the Pope, and the lawfulness of his office. Clearly does he prove that no visible head of the church was appointed by Christ, and that no valid pretext can be urged by the Bishop of Rome for claiming this supremacy. The vague testimony of some early writers is of little avail in this case. Peter was not the apostle of the Gentiles; we have no hint in Scripture of his having been at Rome, and no evidence worthy of credit that he was made its bishop. The Pope of Rome, therefore, cannot sit in Peter's chair; and if he could, this act would not constitute him the universal bishop: so that Dr. S. is justified in asserting, in the first place, that the Roman Catholic system is founded on a false ground of authority. His other reasons against popery are, that it weakens the essential principles of personal religion, — that it

it includes doctrines absurd, unscriptural, and pernicious,—that it subverts the importance and utility of the Holy Scriptures,—that it is favourable to tyranny,—that it invades the authority of Christ, our only spiritual lawgiver,—and that on the whole it is an audacious innovation on his religion. If this be a picture of popery, more is to be said against it than for it, and we Protestants are not so blind and obstinate as some Catholics would represent us.

After having strongly urged his arguments in behalf of Protestantism, the preacher with equal energy adduces his reasons for being a Protestant Dissenter; and he concludes with exhorting all persons to expose and refute every pernicious perversion of the Christian religion, but at the same time to abstain from sanctioning exclusions and persecutions as means of promoting the truth. Long as this sermon is, it contains so much good sense, that the select congregation to which it was delivered probably did not complain of this circumstance.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Mr. Broadhurst's polite letter is received; and we are happy to learn that, in the event of a second edition of his *Funeral Orations*, he is disposed to avail himself of what he is pleased to call our 'very judicious and learned observations' on them, in our last Number.

Mr. Fearn, also, in acknowleging our 'handsome mention' of his "Essay on Consciousness," (in the last Review,) regrets that we were not aware that a second edition of the work has been some time published; which 'embraces a far wider extent of subject, and is certainly beyond comparison a different thing from the first and crude performance.' As we also are sorry that this circumstance was not previously known to us, we take this opportunity of stating it to our readers; and we hope soon to attend to Mr. F.'s other works.

H. M. is obliging in his solicitude about our new *General Index*, to which our thoughts have lately been so often directed by various Correspondents. We cannot yet decide on the undertaking, but are sufficiently aware of its desirableness.

We should be glad to accommodate A. B. with the information which he solicits: but the liability to be thus often called out of our immediate duty forces us to decline a compliance with such requests.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. LXXVII. of the M. R. is published with this Number.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For OCTOBER, 1815.

ART. I. *Tixall Poetry:* with Notes and Illustrations by Arthur Clifford, Esq. Editor of Sir Ralph Sadler's State Papers. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE history of the present publication is closely connected with that of the work which is also mentioned in the title-page, the materials of both having been furnished out of the same repository of curious MSS., the antient mansion of Tixall, near Stafford, now the seat of Sir Thomas Hugh Clifford, eldest brother of the editor, created a baronet in December last. Sir Ralph Sadler, who was its possessor during the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth, died at the age of 80, in 1587; having (as Lloyd asserts in his "Worthies") "bequeathed three things to such as may have the honour to succeed him:

"1. All letters that concerned him, since of years, filed.

"2. All occurrences, since he was capable of observation, registered.

"3. All expences, since he lived, of himself, booked."

The first of these valuable legacies was primarily collected for the use of the public more than two centuries after the death of the testator, under the title already mentioned: but the last two are regretted by the editor, as being in all probability irrecoverably lost in the changes of property which have succeeded. The contents of the present volume are of later origin.

From Ralph Sadler, Esq., grandson of the worthy knight banneret, and last male heir of his house, Tixall devolved in 1660 on Walter Lord Aston, in right of his mother, a granddaughter of the same illustrious personage. Of this family, which remained masters of the place till 1750, when it passed in the general division of the Aston-property between the coheirs of the last lord, was Sir Walter Aston, twice ambassador in Spain under the kings James and Charles the First; and it was in the course of a search for state-papers supposed to have been left by this accomplished diplomatist, that Mr. Clifford had the fortune to meet with the MSS. which he now offers to the public. *Our* present concern is with these only:

we shall therefore only notice, *en passant*, that the search was not unsuccessful in its original object; and that the editor boasts of its satisfactory result in placing in his possession, besides the poems, 'a large quantity of letters, and other papers, relating to the Aston family,' with 'a complete collection of the state-papers, and letters, of Sir Walter Aston, during his two embassies.' The details of the manner in which these rich treasures were brought to light constitute by no means the least amusing part of this volume: indeed, we have scarcely met with any description better calculated to excite the envy of a genuine antiquity-hunter:—but it is necessary that we should hasten to introduce our readers to a nearer view of that portion which is now presented to their inspection:

'When (says Mr. C.) I came to select, and arrange the poems which I had thus discovered, I found that they might be conveniently classed in four divisions:—1. A small thin quarto, stitched, but without a cover, on the outermost leaf of which is written, "Her. Aston, 1658;" 2. A still smaller quarto, which has no cover, but opens with a little poem with this title, "Mrs. Thimelby on the Death of her only Child;" 3. A small, but thick folio, covered with yellowish parchment, much discoloured; on the outside of which is written, "William Turner his booke, 1662:" and on the inside of the under part of the cover, over which the last leaf had been pasted, "Catherin Gage's book;" 4. A large quantity of loose scraps of paper, sheets, half-sheets, backs of letters, and the like, scribbled over with verses.'

The division, which thus naturally presented itself, is adopted in the publication; and the editor's farther inquiries led him to consider the first article in the preceding list as consisting of poems not written but collected by the Hon. Herbert Aston; the second, as containing the original productions of the lady whose name appears at its commencement; as to the third, he confesses that few, if any, of the poems which it includes have not before been printed, but pleads the rarity of most in excuse for their re-publication in this place, and intitles it, 'Poems collected by the Right Honourable Lady Aston;' the fourth, intitled 'Miscellaneous,' consists of such pieces as were found totally unconnected with each other, and among them 'a Pindaric Ode by Dryden, two small poems by Sir Richard Fanshawe, one by Sidney Godolphin, and one by Waller; all of which I found in the old trunk, and which, I believe, are now published for the first time.' Of the remainder, it is evident, he says, that many were written by individuals of the Aston-family and their friends; while others have been collected from a variety of volumes.

To this account of the contents is added a slight, and not uninteresting, biographical sketch of Sir Walter Aston and his immediate descendants, considered as the authors and collectors of the poems. The title of Sir Walter himself to this distinction rests on grounds purely conjectural. He was the liberal friend and patron of Drayton, and is celebrated by that poet as being himself a favourite of the Muses. *Ergo*, his verses must be among those that were inserted in the subsequent Family-Collections. It certainly may be so.

That the Hon. Herbert Aston, Sir Walter's third son, was one of the inspired, is proved by a letter addressed to him by his sister, Constantia Fowler; and it farther appears that Catherine, daughter of Sir John Thimelby, (whom he afterward married,) was the divine object to whom, under the poetical appellation of Seraphina, the aspirations of his muse were addressed. It is not, however, imagined that any of this gentleman's original productions are to be found in the collection inscribed with his name.

Gertrude, fourth daughter of Sir Walter, and wife of Henry Thimelby, Esq., is the first who has any legitimate claim to the honours of authorship in this collection. 'She appears,' says the editor, 'to have employed herself occasionally in writing verses, not with a view of being thought a poetess, but merely from a strong desire to pour forth her feelings on such subjects as excited her sensibility. With this disposition, therefore, and living among persons of cultivated minds, and with a taste for poetry, she endeavoured to relieve her own emotions, and to interest her companions, by poetical effusions on the death, or marriage, of relations and friends, on their parting or meeting, and similar domestic topics.' On the premature death of her husband, followed by that of an only child, she retired to a convent, and died a nun at Louvain in Flanders.

Edward Thimelby, brother to Sir John, who was another principal contributor to these miscellanies, was (according to Dodd's "Church-History") an ecclesiastic, and died provost of the collegiate church of St. Gery in Cambray, about 1690. He appears to have been 'in his youth, at least, of a very lively and sprightly disposition, and to have possessed a considerable share of wit and humour. That he was a classical scholar, a critic, a man of taste and extensive information, his poems, though few, afford abundant proofs.'

In the circumstances attending this collection which we have thus slightly sketched, we meet with something very gratifying to the best feelings of our nature. They present the spectacle of a society composed of individuals of rank and respectability,

connected together by close ties of family and friendship, by similarity of taste and pursuit, and by sentiments in religion (for they were all Roman Catholics) which, as they excluded them from that situation in public life to which their birth and characters might otherwise have called them, threw them on the resources of their own minds, and the indulgence of their social habits and affections, for amusement and occupation. Unluckily, however, the merit of the writings does not depend on the interest which attaches itself to the persons of the composers. That of the 'Tixall Poetry' neither rises above nor sinks below the standard which we should be disposed to assign as the average value of a Family-Album; in which the pieces that are merely collected are more often transcribed from the feeling of the instant than from the exercise of a critical judgment in the selection; and those that are original are written, in like manner, from a momentary impulse on subjects of the most evanescent interest, and without any care for public reputation, as being never meant for public inspection. The editor's estimate of them does not, indeed, appear far to exceed our own; and in his words we shall sum up our judgment, leaving it to our readers to determine on the sufficiency of the motives which he assigns for the publication:

'Of the merit of this collection in general, and of the judgement which I have shown in publishing it to the world, it is not for me to deliver an opinion. I shall, however, declare, that having always felt an enthusiastic predilection for poetry, and having now consumed many years in a constant perusal of our English poets, I feel, that were I divested of all partiality for the authors, or collectors of these poems, and for the place where they were preserved and discovered, I could still take up this volume with as much pleasure, and return to it with as eager delight, as to any poetical miscellany in our language. And, with respect to those readers, who occasionally look into a collection of poems, for the purpose of amusing their leisure, or of recreating their fancy, I shall add, that unless my partial judgment greatly misleads me, I believe they will find as many fragrant flowers, and well-flavoured fruits, in these borders, as in any other garden of the muses, in which they have hitherto delighted.

'At the same time, I am very far from flattering myself, that this work will be considered as any valuable addition to our stock of ancient poetry, or that it will ever become extensively popular. I consider it, myself, rather as an object of curiosity. The poems of which it consists were accidentally discovered; they were snatched from the very jaws of destruction; in a few years more, they would perhaps have sunk, with their authors, into the dark abyss of overwhelming oblivion: they would most probably have perished. Under these circumstances, it was to me a sort of religious feeling, a sacred duty, to attempt to give them a "habitation and a name." To some persons this volume will always be interesting, in some

libraries it will always preserve a place, to some families it will always be precious. My ambition is fully satisfied.'

After what we have said, our extracts from the collection shall not be very extensive. We will confine them to one or two specimens from each of the above-mentioned four divisions; beginning with the following, which we can easily imagine to have excited merriment in the family-circle:

'A NEW REMONSTRANCE TO HIS MALIGNANT MISTRESSE.

'Since beauty's such a tyrant growne
In thee, I'l now discover,
What grievances can ne'ere be borne
By any freeborne lover.

'Nor is my hart rebellious growne:
Since thou art still betraying
The trust and power of beauty's throne,
It finds no more obaying.

'My loves benevolence, I say,
Though deue was freely given;
Without a parlament, I'l pay
No subsidy to Heaven.

'A routed faith, a plundered love,
And a sequestred deuty,
Are taxe and impost good enough
For thy delinquent beauty.

'Call not my harts free homage, scant
Allegiance pay'd unto thee,
Least it engage, and covenant,
New fealtys to undoe thee.

'Revoake not back the lyfe you give,
I'l die no doating martyr,
But question thy prerogative,
If thou repeale my charter.

'Strive not thy Babell towre to build,
Or arme gainst loves free citty;
Scorne's high commission-court may yeeld
To freedomes grand committy.

'Tempt not with thy new minion's pride
My love to wrath abetted;
Felton had not a knife more tryed,
Nor Pymme a toung more whetted.

'Nor thinke thy force, or thy deceipt,
Of art or arme can out me:
Love has his Ferfaxes to beat,
And Crumwells too to rowt thee.'

It was reserved for late years to witness the completion of the following very poetical prophecy:

'ON A BROKEN VENICE GLASSE.

'Venice, thy long lyf'd state must also passe;
Thy situation's lubrik as thy glasse." P. 60.

Mrs. Henry Thimelby, like most young poetesses, is a determined opponent of the selfish system of philosophy; and the following lines, addressed 'To Mr. E. T.' (that is, says the editor, to her brother-in-law Edward Thimelby already mentioned,) 'who holds self-love in all our actions,' are not the least spirited in the collection. Her historical allusions are chiefly to the characters in the then fashionable poem of "Gondibert."

'Selfe-love in all? sure I am not awake!
My dreames abuse me, or my eares mistake.
So knowne a iudgment such an errour hold!
Ile not believe 't, though nere so often told.
If y' are in iest, I care not to dispute
For proofe, how truth can the best witt confute.
Doe you selfe-love in humble Birtha find,
Who griev'd for feare of wronging Rhodalind,
With sober minde acknowledg'd her desert,
Fit only for her most lov'd Gondebert?
In sweete Bellario was selfe-love exprest,
Who wish'd Heavens curse if't pleas'd her master best?
Examples of the same doe so abound
They helpe me not to choose, but doe confound.
Did not Queene Elnor love her husband more,
Who t' ease his paine suckt his invenom'd soare?
And that brave dame, who, following her lord,
Stept still before at sight oth' frightful sword,
Making her breast his buckler, fully prov'd,
That it was him and not herselfe she lov'd.
Say, truth with fables here you mixed see,
That shews who were, and these how we may be.
If you alleage those golden dayes are done,
Our iron age will not afford me one
Of that fam'd stamp, in all things els I yeald,
But in this cause I dare mentaine the field;
And nere goe farther, though I'me sure you'de finde,
If not mongst men, most women of this minde.
Tis not selfe-love in me, who to correct
Your errour with my shame doe truth protect;
A blush I can afford for every line,
The subiects spotles, all the faults are mine.'

Many if not most of the pieces contained in Lady Aston's collection are to be found in print elsewhere, and some so commonly occur that we can hardly profess ourselves satisfied with the editor's reasons for their re-publication here. The ensuing, we

we believe, has not appeared before; and it possesses some lines of great merit:

'To Sleep.

'Care-charming sleepe, thou easer of all woes,
Brother to death, gently thyself dispose
On this afflicted wight; fall like a cloud
In gentle showers, give nothing that is loud,
Or painfull to his slumbers; ease is sweet,
When soothing dreams the wearied fancy cheat:
'And, as faire purling streams, thou son of night,
In softest, sweetest, murmurs of delight,
Passe by his troubled sences, sing his paines,
Like hollow murmuring winds, or silver raines,
Unto thy selfe gently: O, gently glide
And kisse him into slumbers like a bride.'

Something good appears in the epigrammatic turn of the poem which follows:

'To Hope.

'Goe, treacherous Hope, by whose deceitfull fire,
I've cherisht my tiranicall desire;
Love is a more unconstant guest then care,
And my fate such,
That it will cost as much
To love, as to dispaire.

'Tis true our lives are but a long disease,
Made up of real cares, and seeming ease.
Ye Gods, who these uncertain favours give,
O, tell me why,
It is so hard to die,
Yet such a taske to live.'

Of the miscellaneous poems which form the fourth division of the volume, we should not hold ourselves excused if we passed in silence the first, which bears the name of the greatest English poet of his time. It is thus intitled; "On the Marriage of the fair and vertuous Lady, Mrs. Anastasia Stafford, with that truly worthy and pious Gent. George Holman, Esq. a Pindarique Ode. By Mr. Dryden." In support of its genuineness, the editor makes the following observations:

'I have no other authority to produce, in proof of this ode being the production of Dryden, but what is contained in the title, which is printed, just as it is in the original MS. The internal evidence is strongly in its favour. It has all the characters of Dryden's genius and manner.

'When Dryden, on the accession of James II. became a Roman Catholic, it is very probable that he would form an acquaintance with the principal families of that persuasion, in England, in his time. Among these, that of Stafford was one of the most conspi-

cuous; and the more so, from the circumstance of Lord Stafford having most unjustly been put to death, in 1680, for his supposed participation in Oates's plot. The principal witness against him was one Dugdale, who had been steward to Lord Aston, but was discharged from his service, for having defrauded his Lordship of a large sum of money. This perjured wretch declared, that he had assisted at a great consultation of Catholics, at Tixall, at which Lord Stafford was present; and swore, that his Lordship, on that occasion, had given his *full particular assent* to take away the life of the king.—(See Hume's Hist. vol. viii. p. 145. Fox's Hist. of James II. p. 37—44.)

'As Tixall is only four miles from Stafford-castle, which was the ancient seat of the Staffords; and, as there was always a close connection between the two families, it can excite no surprise, that a copy of Dryden's poem should have been discovered there.'

We shall give the first stanza as a specimen, which may enable our readers, at least in part, to judge for themselves whether the Ode be, as it appears to the editor, 'in every respect worthy of the genius and fame of Dryden.' For ourselves, we shall only say, without presuming to decide the question, that, on the whole, we think the internal evidence is in its favour:

'When nature, in our northern hemisphere,
Had shortned day-light, and deform'd the year;
When the departing sun
Was to our adverse tropique run;
And fair St. Lucy, with the borrow'd light,
Of moon and stars, had lengthen'd night:
What more then summer's day slipt in by chance,
To beautify the calendar?
What made a spring, in midst of winter to advance,
And the cold seasons leap into a youthfull dance,
To rouse the drooping year?
Was this by miracle, or did they rise
By the bright beams of Anastasia's eyes?
To light our frozen clime,
And, happily for us, mistook their time?
'Twas so, and 'twas imported in her name;
From her, their glorious resurrection came,
And she renewed their perisht flame.
The God of nature did the same:
His birth the depth of winter did adorn,
And she, to marriage then her second birth was born.
Her pious family, in every state,
Their great Redeemer well can imitate.
They have a right in Heaven, an early place;
The beauteous bride is of a martyr's race:
And he above, with joy looks down,
I see, I see him blaze with his immortall crown.

He,

He, on her nuptials, does his beams dispense,
Blessing the day with better influence;
He looks from Heaven with joy, and gives her joy from thence.'

The second stanza is too long for quotation in this place, but it seems to us to bear yet stronger marks of similitude than the former.

Of the two poems which follow, by Sir Richard Fanshawe, we select the second, together with the note accompanying it, as a lively specimen of the gallantry which prevailed in the little friendly circle at Tixall:

'Celia hath for a brother's absence sworne,
Rash oath! that since her tresses cannot mourne
In blacke, (because uncut Apollo's hayre
Darts not a greater splendour through the ayre)
She'l make them droope in her neglect; forget
Those rings, which her white hand in order set;
And curiously did every morning curle
Into a thousand snares the silver purle.
But they are disobedient to command,
And swear they owe no homage to her hand:
That Nature is their mistresse, in her name,
The priviledge that they were borne to clayme:
Scorning to have it said, the hayre gave place
To the perfections that all parts doe grace.
So weave themselves in loopes; and curle now more
By carelesnesse, then by her care before.
Like a crisp't comet, which the starres pursue
In throngs, and mortals with pale horror view,
Threatning some great one's death — such light displayes
Her face, or like a saint that's crown'd with rayes.
Lady — what boots neglect of face, or hayre?
You must use art if you would growe less fayre.

'Dear Brother,

'That you may see how Mr. Fanshaw has spent his time here, I have sent you these verses, which are of his making, sence his coming hither, and hee presented them to my sister and mee. The first were made upon this occasion: Wee wer all walking in the owld halle, and looking upon Trent, and I was speaking how you used to course your boy Dick about that medow, and talking of many such things. But the next morning he came out with these verses, which I doe not think but you will like very well, for methinks they are very prity ones, if they had bin made of better subjectes. We made him beleeve that you should fight with him when he came into Spaine againe, for abusing your sisters so, in flattering of them so infinightly as he has don in these verses. But now to come to speeke of these other verses of his, which are made in particular to my sister Gatt. The occasion of making of them was this: We had bin one cavening at bowles, and when we caime in, my sister was opening her hayre with her fingers, and bid him tell you that she would not curle her hayer no otherwaies than it curled itselfe till she saw you againe.

Uppon

Uppon which theame he made these other verses, which are much admired by all here, and by the Thimelbyes. I have sent you a lettle picture which you did love much when you were here, and then I could not get one for you, but sence having got one for you, I was most willing to send it you. Once more, my dear brother, adieu.'

The name prefixed to the succeeding verses renders their insertion a point of duty; and with them we must bid farewell to Tixall.

'MR. WALLER, WHEN HE WAS AT SEA.

'While I was free, I wrote with high conceit,
And love and beauty rais'd above their height.
Love, that bereaves us both of brayne and hart,
Sorrow and silence doth at once impart.
What hand at once can wield a sword, and write?
Or battel paynt engaged in the fight?
Who will describe a storme must not be there:
Passion writes well neither in love nor feare.
Why, on the naked boy, have poets then
Feathers and wings bestowed, that wants a penne?'

It adds not a little to the good opinion which we are compelled to entertain of this amiable society, that, in so extensive a collection, formed in the reign of Charles the Second, not a single *copy of verses* nor even a single sentiment or expression occurs, that the most scrupulous lady of the present refined age would hesitate to admit into the sacred precincts of her poetical miscellany.

ART. II. *A candid and impartial Inquiry into the present State of the Methodist Societies in Ireland:* wherein several important Points relative to their Doctrines and Discipline are discussed. By a Member of the Society. 8vo. pp. 487. 7s. 6d. Boards. Printed at Belfast, and sold in London by Commins and Baynes. 1814.

THE followers of Wesley and Whitfield have been more fortunate in the name by which they are designated than the Society of Friends, whose appellation of *Quakers* is ill calculated to denote the steady and unshaken mind which Friends generally display. Though the term *Methodists* was applied with derision to Wesley and his first companions, it may now, with some propriety, be assigned to the members of the Wesleyan church; whose discreet founder gave it a constitution before his death; and which, perhaps, has assumed more method or system in its management than the management of any of the other dissenting sects displays. The establishment of "*The Conference*" was a sound stroke of policy; since,

since, under a very mild and unalarming appellation, it not only concentrates an extensive power of ecclesiastical government, but enables the Methodistic church to accumulate property, and to act, on occasions, with a formidable *momentum*. Its numbers and influence are now so very considerable, that an impartial inquiry into its present state, whether in Great Britain or in Ireland, ought not to be overlooked.

Although ardently attached to the cause of Methodism, the writer before us is not quite satisfied with *things as they are*, and in certain points is an advocate for reformation: but he takes care to have it understood that he wishes not the interference of 'the gentlemen philosophers of the day,' and we give him some credit for his shrewdness in this respect; since it is evident that these said gentlemen philosophers would be very troublesome to this gentleman Methodist on several occasions. It is not a little unfortunate for him, as he begins his career of inquiry into doctrinals with proscribing philosophy, that he himself falls into the sorry habit of *reasoning*, which is one of the most dangerous and alarming practices of philosophy, and that too when he is writing to his brethren on mysteries. Reason must either be altogether excluded or permitted to have full play. If we put her afloat, she will insist on making her voyage. In this work, which is to a great degree argumentative, reason indeed is only required to act to a certain extent: but, had the author thought of defining his terms, in order that he might have furnished precise and tangible ideas, if we may so express ourselves, he needed not have written so much, though it might surely have been more to the purpose. We shall take the liberty of exemplifying in two instances.

Among the tenets of Methodism, *Original Sin* and *Imputed Righteousness* are subjects of much comment: but it would be difficult to define either of these terms without at once perceiving that they express what mathematicians would call *impossible quantities*. Since, however, this gentleman Methodist has gone out of his way to sneer at the 'gentlemen philosophers,' they perhaps could not better return the compliment than by throwing themselves *in* his way, and by obliging him with a definition of terms which, though not scriptural, are said by him to express scripture-doctrines. Now, if a definition were to be given of *Original Sin*, it must assume a form something like the following: "An actual want of conformity to or a transgression of the law of God, charged on persons previously to their existence*:" but is not this an absurdity of the most

* The doctrine of the Assembly's Catechism is that "All mankind *sinned in* and fell with Adam in the first transgression." How is this possible?

glaring

glaring kind? If the advocates of the doctrine reply that they only mean, by the above term, to express 'a corrupt and deeply vitiated nature,' the rejoinder will be that 'a vitiated nature' is not *Sin*, and that the phrase *Original Sin* is composed of two words which are as unsusceptible of a rational junction as the terms *sky-blue-scarlet*. Let it be remembered that we are not attacking the doctrine of Human Depravity; we only assert that the Methodists have not chosen a proper phrase to express it; and that, if they wish to give correctness of thinking, they must correct their term:—In like manner, on the subject of *the Righteousness of Christ*, we not only do not deny, but we fully believe, that the sinful race of men may derive unspeakable benefits from that righteousness; not, however, by way of *imputation*, or absolute *transfer*. Righteousness, or moral purity, is a quality of the mind which can no more be made over by transfer to a person totally destitute of it, than the property of the triangle can be given to the circle, or the qualities of fire to a block of ice. Again, then, we see put together two incongruous words; and 'the gentlemen philosophers of the day' will insist, and defy all the anti-philosophers to contradict them, that it is not within the power of Omnipotence itself to *impute* or strictly to transfer the crimes of Nero to the spotless Jesus, or the innocence of Jesus to the iniquitous Nero.

On the first of these points, as well as on the last, a considerable diversity of opinion is said to prevail among the Methodists; and, though they together with other sects may be puzzled to account for the origin and prevalence of evil, the difficulty would considerably diminish were they to agree to adopt more definable terms than those which are now in use on these subjects. Simplicity and precision are great promoters of unanimity.

The topic of Imputed Righteousness is thus introduced at p. 95.:

'Upon this interesting subject also, there is a considerable diversity of opinion in the Methodist connexion. The popular feeling appears to be rather against it, while many pious and judicious persons both preachers and private members, follow the venerable founder of Methodism, in adopting and maintaining it as a fundamental principle in the spiritual fabric of Christianity, and as the only legitimate foundation of a sinner's acceptance with God, the justification of a believer's person, and of his title to eternal life. And it is pretty clear, notwithstanding the tide of prejudice which runs throughout the general system of Arminianism, against this most comfortable doctrine, that the advocates of it have Scripture and the opinions of many able and judicious divines in their favour. The opposition which this glorious doctrine experiences in the Methodist connexion, although founded on neither Scripture nor reason, admits of some apology from the

the motives which induce it. For these good people, who so zealously enter their protest against both the name and the thing, apprehend that the term *imputed* is placed in direct opposition to *implanted*, and that the whole doctrine of the imputation of righteousness is intended to supersede personal holiness, and has a direct tendency to undermine and destroy the genuine work of grace in the souls of men. But, as these sentiments are founded in error, and in the misconceptions of prejudice, a candid and impartial investigation of the merits of this doctrine, of the basis on which it rests, the authority by which it is supported, and the uses to which it is ordained of God, appear necessary to divest our minds of that prejudice, and enable us duly to appreciate, and thankfully to embrace, this most glorious privilege of the sons of God.'

Thus the author contends for this doctrine:

'That the doctrine is true appears not only from what has already been advanced, but also from the vicarious character assumed by our blessed Redeemer, as exhibited and confirmed by the following and similar passages of Scripture. In Jeremiah, xxiii. 6. Christ is expressly styled, "*The Lord our righteousness;*" words, the natural import of which is, that those who are united to Jesus by faith are personally represented by him, and interested in the merits of his righteousness, which becomes theirs by imputation. And again, in 1 Corinthians, i. 30. he is declared to be "made unto us of God, wisdom, righteousness, sanctification, and redemption;" all these being imputed to believers, in the glorious perfection in which they are found in their living head, and imparted to them, in the degrees suited to the limitation of their capacities in receiving them. These are the things which alone can sanction, nay demand, upon their adequate merit, the justification of a character before God; but to do this, they must be found in absolute perfection. In angels, and in our first parents prior to the fall, they were found perfect, agreeable to the station they filled in the scale of intelligent and responsible beings; and, accordingly, their justification rested upon their own personal righteousness. — But in fallen man this is totally impossible; therefore, his justification must rest upon the interest he has in the character and virtues of his great federal head and representative, imputed to him by a righteous God.'

We shall offer no other remark on this passage, than that it is not calculated to remove those objections which seem to prevail against this sentiment in Methodistic society. We indeed mean not to enter into a discussion relative to the doctrinal department of this work, but shall here observe, *en passant*, that, if 'Methodism be not the opinions of a certain sect of people, but *the life and power of godliness demonstrated in the hearts, and exemplified in the lives of its professors*,' (p. 8.) they will do wisely not to embroil themselves with controversial divinity, but to erect their church on a latitude of opinion that is compatible with the full exercise of the right of private judgment.

Differences

Differences of sentiment are prevailing among Methodists, but the following is given as their public creed:

'They embrace the great leading features of the Christian religion, as acknowledged at least by the Church of England, viz. The Unity of the Trinity in the Godhead: the universality of the love of God to man: the fall of Adam, and consequent depravity of his offspring: the universal extent of the atonement, and its divine efficacy for the salvation of every soul of man, by whom it is embraced: the necessity of repentance towards God, and of faith in the Lord Jesus Christ, of regeneration, of purity of heart, of restoration to the favour of God, and the recovery of his image in this world. And of a life uniformly devoted to the service of God, under the powerful influence of his Holy Spirit, as the great agent in the work of salvation. They acknowledge the exclusive mediation of the man Christ Jesus; they object not to the possible perseverance of the saints, but glory in it as their happy privilege, yea, as absolutely necessary and essential to salvation. They believe in the resurrection of the dead: in the day of judgment: in the eternal felicity of the saints: and in the everlasting misery of the damned, whose eternal condemnation they ascribe solely to their obstinate rejection of the sincere offers of salvation made to them in the gospel of our Lord Jesus Christ.'

What will be the success of this inquirer's endeavours to rectify certain forms of expression, adopted by the Society to which he belongs, in hymning the subject of the Trinity, we cannot say: but, alas! he reasons on this mystery too much like some 'gentlemen philosophers,' and may probably have his orthodoxy called in question, while he is expostulating with his brethren.

'Another most exceptionable and erroneous mode of expression which has sometimes fallen from high authority in our pulpits, is, "that the eternal God was made man, suffered and died upon the cross, for us men, and our salvation," &c. &c. Is it so then, that the ever blessed God hath changed his nature, and from being the eternal, self-existent, immortal Deity, hath become a feeble, suffering, mortal man? By no means! But our hymns support the same sentiment; in them we sing,

"The immortal God for me hath died!" — And,

"I thirst for a life-giving God,
A God that on Calvary died!"

'Tenderness for the feelings of those who have inadvertently been drawn into the use of those most unjustifiable expressions, induces us to mollify the censure they so richly deserve. And although they carry their own condemnation on their face, yet in condescension to the weakness of many of our brethren, we shall reason for a moment on their great and unqualified absurdity.'

Pursuing his reasonings, he lays himself open to other reasoners, who could easily puzzle him with syllogisms: but we will not chop logic with him.

When

When the *discipline* of the Methodists falls under consideration, the inquirer enters his protest against what is called *Renewing the Covenant*, which is common among them at stated periods. If his account be accurate, (and we have no reason for calling it in question,) this custom is very objectionable, and ought certainly to be discontinued. Many of our readers being probably as ignorant as ourselves of the regulations which are in use among the initiated of this sect, we shall transcribe the passage descriptive of the above-mentioned practice, as well as the author's condemnation of it:

'Closely connected with the doctrines taught and believed in the Methodist connexion, stands a ceremonial in general practice among us at stated periods; this is distinguished by the title of "The renewal of the covenant." The members of our societies are by no means unanimous in their opinions respecting either the general expediency of this ceremony, or the propriety of many of the expressions it contains. Many are of opinion that it bears the aspect of a Jewish institution, rather than that of a Christian privilege; that it is a thing altogether unauthorised, and without precedent under the Christian dispensation; and that in many parts its language is inimical to the genuine humility of the religion of Christ, and unbecoming sinful and dependent creatures, suing for mercy through the atoning blood of a crucified Saviour.

'And indeed these sentiments are not to be wondered at, when we consider that by the terms of this covenant, the sinner is encouraged to pledge mighty promises of future holiness, zeal, and fidelity, and to stake solemn vows, having all the solemnity and obligation of oaths, of future stability, and the most perfect obedience to the law of God, as his part of the condition; in return for which promises, and upon the credit of which vows, he is taught to expect a most enlarged degree of the divine confidence and favour.' —

'This covenant sets out upon the principle of self-conversion, and claims a reward upon the credit of perfect and unspotted obedience promised at a future day; a plea which is as insulting to God as it is vain and futile in itself. It cannot be for a moment recognised as legitimate, and we must for ever lament, with sentiments of the deepest regret, that it has been unhappily interwoven in the fabric of Methodism. Let us, however, indulge a hope that it may yet be banished from our societies, or at least completely new-modelled, and if possible rendered in some degree agreeable to our glorious and evangelical dispensation. Happily, a considerable number of our well-informed members are grown completely ashamed of it, and will by no means attend its annual celebration.'

In the chapter intitled 'A General View of the State of Methodism associated with the fundamental Principles of Christianity,' &c. a fact of some importance is promulgated, viz. that the *Conference* (or Methodistic conclave) is certainly invested with a power to take cognizance of *deviations* from

from what are supposed to be the sound orthodox principles of Methodism;—after which, an inquiry is instituted, 'How far preachers are called on to surrender their private sentiments to the decision of this body?' Next to the Scriptures, 'the writings of the fathers of this church' are asserted to be '*the pillars of Methodism*, or the basis of its doctrine and discipline *to the end of time*, to which, in all probability, this connection will be commensurate.' Methodism, then, according to this writer, is an eternal and unchangeable church; and, as it allows no deviation of doctrine or discipline from the decrees of its founders, we can scarcely perceive how it can with propriety admit liberty of conscience or of reformation. With great modesty, the writings of its fathers are placed *next after* the Scriptures: but, if any debate occurs on the meaning of certain texts, these fathers, by being the appointed judges, become in fact *next above* the Scriptures!—Such is the inevitable consequence of appealing to human authority for fixing the sense of controverted passages. It is confessed, however, that, in the Methodistic church of Ireland, (which is said to be in a declining state,) doctrines are promulgated from the pulpit which differ from the primitive standard of orthodoxy. This dissonance, it is conjectured, may be obviated by some *fixed criterion of doctrine* *: under which impression, the author submits the following remark to his brethren: 'If there is a radical defect in the constitution of Methodism, perhaps it consists of the want of this very thing amongst us.' (P. 247.) The old popish pretext is urged in recommendation of this measure, viz. that 'the doctrines of the Bible are liable to a great variety of interpretations:' but, if this be an evil, will a human formula produce its cure; and is it not folly to make the attempt, unless the church could obtain from the chancery of Heaven a patent of infallibility? As such a patent is *not* to be

* It appears that the present practice of the Methodists, which is to refer on all controverted points to the writings of their early fathers, (to Wesley and others,) much resembles that of the Quakers, in this respect; and we are clearly of opinion, notwithstanding all that the present inquirer has advanced, that this mode is far preferable to the more decided measure of introducing a specific and unalterable creed, for which he so strenuously contends. By merely *referring* or *appealing* to antient writings, to aid us in clearing up doubts, and removing difficulties, we exercise *no dominion over the faith of others*: but, when a specific creed is introduced, it becomes a sort of *Procrustes' bed*: every person in the connection must be placed on it; if his faith be too long, all that exceeds the measure must be lopped off; and if too short, it must be stretched and pulled to the exact orthodox dimension.

obtained,

obtained, can the interference of a mere human authority be supposed to give such a sanction to one specific mode of interpretation above all other modes, as will effect the tame acquiescence of sensible Christians, who will read, and in spite of Conferences, Convocations, and General Councils, will judge for themselves? Human creeds raise stumbling-blocks in controversy rather than smooth its path; and fatal experience has invariably proved that it is better to rest satisfied with an "Unity of Spirit in the Bond of Peace," than to confine men in ignorance, or to force them to hypocrisy by making a vain attempt at a general uniformity of opinion.

We cannot, therefore, think with the author of this Inquiry that his church is in want of 'an official compendium of doctrine;' if he means by such a compendium, or code of Methodism, to exercise the smallest dominion over the faith of individuals. Yet he lays great stress on it, as if he were apprehensive that his *everlasting church would not last for ever* unless this expedient be adopted:

'We want it,' he says, 'as a centre of union, a rallying point of defence and mutual support, round which the whole body of the connexion can form a circle of unanimity, whose ranks cannot be easily penetrated by error, or broken by disunion. In short, we want it as the key-stone in the arch of the fabric of Methodism, and without it we shall find parts of our building continually falling about our ears, and threatening both the foundation and superstructure with ruin and desolation.'

Having urged every argument which presented itself in behalf of the project of fixing 'a Code of Methodism,' he proceeds to specify the particular clauses or enactments of which this code should consist. Now, as acts contain penalties to be levied in case of disobedience, he has sagaciously inserted 'the eternity of the miseries of the damned' in this code: but though, with a sort of *Irish twist*, he seems prepared to shew '*the consistency of such a sentence with the well-known goodness of God*,' he is not sure of the acquiescence of his brethren, many of whom seriously object to the horrid conversion of a *God of infinite love* into a *God of eternal vengeance*. In short, we are far from concurring with this writer in thinking that, by striving to force belief, he will diffuse unanimity among the faithful: but, as he is strenuous in urging his project, we shall transcribe a passage which fully displays it:

'The consideration and determination of the preceding points of doctrine appear to be absolutely requisite both to satisfy the minds of individuals, and also to diffuse a spirit of unanimity among our societies, without which it is vain to look for either peace or prosperity in the connexion. But doubtless, many other points of considerable importance will suggest themselves to the minds of those

who may be appointed to prepare a complete digest of our principles. When this is once completed, it may be found expedient to appoint an annual committee from the Conference, whose sole business should be, during their session, (which probably needs not exceed one day,) to decide upon any questions which may occur, relative to the understanding or propagation of such doctrines as may be sanctioned among us; and also to reprove and restrain the promulgation of doctrines inimical to the principles of the connexion.

'This committee, who would in fact constitute the censors of the connexion, would, of course, govern their decisions in all cases by the code of Methodism, and their acts might form an advantageous appendage to the Minutes of Conference. Thus we should perceive an annual increase in wisdom; our principles would become clear and permanent, and their unequivocal meaning universally disseminated. An end would hereby be put to the jarring sentiments which now divide the preachers and people; and to those dissentions which will ever be the bane of religion, and are particularly destructive of that union of sentiment and affection, which is the only bond of the Methodist connexion.'

Not less energetic is this author in contending for fixing the creed of Methodism, than for the establishment of an institution for the education of its ministers. Government is reminded of its obligations to Methodism on the score of morality and loyalty, and is required to favour it in the same way as it has served the Catholics by the endowment of Maynooth College. The 'barbarism' of former Methodists, who objected to human learning in ministers, is said to have passed away, and the present race '*begin to see* that knowlege is the best auxiliary to religion.' Now, if they begin to see this already, in the next age they may *begin to see a little more*, and then they may term the faith of the present day *barbarism*, as Methodists of the existing day pronounce *some* of the sentiments of their predecessors to be. Besides, has this inquirer and improver forgotten his former dread of Philosophy? When theological students are regularly taught the sciences; when they study the properties of triangles, ellipses, and other sections of the cone; when they are introduced to orreries, air-pumps, electrical machines, galvanic batteries, and the whole apparatus of chemistry; is it not to be apprehended that they will acquire a resemblance to the 'gentlemen philosophers of the present day,' and be too proud to submit their carnal reason to dictators of faith who are less improved than themselves?

If we differ with this Inquirer in some of his views, we must still do him the justice to remark that he manifests the best intention; and that he wishes not only to promote the revival of true religion in parts where it languishes, but to place the Methodistic church in the most respectable circumstances.

The Supplement contains some particulars relative to the Discipline of the Methodists, and concludes with the following table:

'STATEMENT OF THE NUMBERS COMPOSING THE METHODIST SOCIETIES OVER THE WHOLE WORLD, WITH A VIEW OF THE RECENT INCREASE IN THE BRITISH DOMINIONS.

	Number in Society in 1812.	In 1813.	Increase.
Great Britain	155,124	162,003	6879
Ireland	27,823	28,770	947
West Indies	13,042	15,220	2178
Nova Scotia and Newfoundland	1225	1522	297
	197,214	207,515	10,301

In 1813.			
France	100	America	216,000
Gibraltar	87		
Sierra Leone	96	Total	423,798

'Of the increase last year, which appears by the above to have been 10,301, in the aggregate only 947 fell to the share of Ireland: a small proportion this, and one which indicates that we labour under some radical defect in our general system, which opposes the prosperity of the connexion in this part of the United Kingdom.'

We have only to add that the above table contradicts the assertion that Methodism in Ireland is on the decline, though it does not increase so rapidly as elsewhere.

ART. III. *An Account of a Voyage to Spitzbergen*, containing a full Description of that Country, of the Zoology of the North, and of the Shetland Isles; with an Account of the Whale Fishery. By John Laing, Surgeon. With an Appendix, containing some important Observations on the Variation of the Compass, &c. by a Gentleman of the Navy. 8vo. pp. 180. 5s. Boards. Mawman. 1815.

PROMPTED by curiosity, 'and by a still more powerful motive,' the writer of this narrative solicited and obtained the appointment of surgeon on board the Resolution, of Whitby, a vessel employed in the north-sea whale-fishery, in 1806. During the following year, he seems to have acted in the same capacity; and, though his journal refers to the first voyage, he occasionally blends with it such remarks as were suggested by the second. When we reflect on the book-making spirit of the age, and on the considerable interval which

has elapsed since these voyages were performed, we cannot reasonably impute to Mr. Laing the charge of compiling a heavy or massive volume: but neither can we very cordially compliment him on the score of originality or acuteness. In general, he states in a plain and homely manner, and without much reverence for the ordinary rules of syntax, facts and appearances which were already recorded in Pennant's Arctic Zoology, Phipps's Voyage, Fabricius' *Fauna Grœnlandica*, &c. His notices of Whitby, where he commenced his journal, and where he spent a considerable part of his time 'in making such remarks as were particularly interesting,' are singularly scanty and meagre. Among other important omissions, we may mention the manufacture of alum, which might have naturally attracted the notice of a traveller whom we may presume to have applied, in the course of his professional education, to the study of chemistry. A little attention to the history of extraneous fossils would also have enabled him to explain the appearance of petrified and headless *snakes*. His desultory observations on the Shetland isles are occasionally deficient in accuracy, and seldom possess either novelty or interest: but the following fact, if duly authenticated, deserves the observation of ornithologists. Speaking of two very high inaccessible pillars, he says that on them 'the large species of cormorants breed. What is very extraordinary, the rock possessed by these birds one year is deserted the next, and returned to again after being a year unpossessed. This singular practice has been carried on during the memory of man.' By the *larger species of cormorant*, is probably meant the real cormorant (*Pelecanus carbo*), as contradistinguished from the *shag*, (*P. graculus*,) which is sometimes improperly denominated the *smaller cormorant*.

That the *aurora borealis* is the *constant attendant* of clear evenings, even in the most northerly latitudes, is an erroneous assertion; since, in late years, the frequency of that phænomenon has considerably diminished even in Norway and Lapland; and we can scarcely suppose that more southern districts still retain their former amount of nocturnal light. In his enumeration of the mineral productions of these islands, the author should have noticed the large garnets that occur in Unst. That the *shelties*, or dwarf ponies of Shetland, are indebted for their diminutive size to the influence of *excessive cold* appears to us to be extremely questionable; both because the cold in these regions is, generally, less intense than in the interior of Scotland, and because an equally small breed of horses occurs in Corsica and Sardinia. The author's memoranda of Shetlandic birds are in some respects very superficial,

and in others not very intelligible to the English reader; thus we find *corn-craik*, for *land-rail*, — *duntur*, for *eider-duck*, — and *clack*, for *bernacle-goose*. *Opah* may, perhaps, be a provincial term, with the import of which we are unacquainted: but, if Mr. Laing means to signify by it the *opah dory*, or *king-fish*, (*zens opah*,) it may be proper to remind him that this fish is neither *peculiar* to the northern seas nor does it by any means *abound* in them. — The health, vigour, and longevity of the hardy Shetlanders would appear to be quite chimerical: at least the present writer represents them as a sickly race; and, when asked to visit patients, he says, he 'found a private infirmary almost in every house.' Exposure to cold during fishing, the want of other occupations sufficiently laborious to afford healthy exercise, and the prevalent use of tea, he assigns as the principal causes of their complaints.

Proceeding by Ian Mayen and Cherry Island, the ship on the 28th of April was made fast to a large iceberg; a circumstance which recalls the description of these floating and glittering hills by Pennant and Forster.

'May 1st. In the morning, about twelve or one o'clock, the garland was put upon the main top-gallant stay by the last married man, as is usual among the Greenland ships. It is formed by the crossing of three small hoops in the form of a globe, and is covered with ribbons, &c. The crew on this occasion blacken their faces with a mixture of grease and soot, and dance round the decks, their chief musical instruments being frying-pans, mess-kettles, fire-irons, &c. This rough mode of festivity they continued till the Captain ordered them a plentiful allowance of grog. After regaling themselves with the very acceptable donation of their commander, they washed themselves, and began to coil away the boat-lines, and prepare for the fishing.'

In latitude 78, near the south cape of Spitzbergen, the vessel's course was greatly impeded by ice, and the author was convinced that salt water may be congealed by frost. He then prefaces his account of Spitzbergen by observing that a wretched sameness pervades every part of it; yet he dwells with complacency on the picturesque, romantic, and sublime scenery that is exhibited by its bold coasts and towering glaciers:

'Spitzbergen has no settled inhabitants. It is, however, resorted to by parties of Russians, who, in turn, continue there throughout the year for the purpose of hunting, which they practise in all weathers. These hardy adventurers have erected huts neighbouring to several of the harbours and bays, and are well provided with wood for fuel, which they bring along with them from Archangel; as also with dried fish, rye-meal, and an abundant supply of whey, similar to, if not made in the same manner as the Shetland beverage. This

last constitutes their chief drink, and is likewise used in baking their bread. Their beds are principally composed of skins of the animals which they kill, and of these they also make garments, which they wear with the fur side next their bodies. The walruses and seals afford them a plentiful store of their favourite delicacy *train-oil*, and the bears, deers, and foxes, fall frequent victims to the dexterity of these excellent marksmen. They are at liberty to return to their native country towards the latter end of September, if not relieved by a fresh party before that time. Some of these Arctic hunters came on board our ship, and when set down to meat, they preferred a mess of biscuit and whale-oil to all the dainties placed before them. Of this coarse repast they eat with a healthful appetite, and in their own language pronounced it good. They had the complexion of Siberians, and were dressed in bear and deer skins. They had an athletic and vigorous appearance, though somewhat stiffened and cramped by the extreme cold to which they are exposed. During the time they were on board, and particularly while at meat, they behaved with a decorum and gentleness which could hardly be expected from their grotesque appearance; and the neatness of their fowling-pieces, boat-tackling, &c. manifested a taste and ingenuity of which the inhabitants of a more refined country need not be ashamed.'

Instead of 'A full Description of the Zoology of the North,' we are presented with a very imperfect sketch of a few mammiferous animals and birds. The account of the polar Bear, however, may amuse those who are unacquainted with the manners of that formidable quadruped. The captain of the Resolution wounded an individual of this species in the side, 'and immediately the animal, as if conscious of the styptic nature of snow, covered the wound with it, and made off.'

Mr. Laing, who complains of the extreme confusion which characterizes the descriptions of the amphibious animals exhibited by different voyagers and naturalists, blends the *Trichechi* with the *Phocæ*, substitutes the vague and obsolete specific designation of *Vitulus marinus* for *Phoca vitulina*, and even leads us to infer that the *Phocæ* consist of two great *varieties*, of which *Vitulus marinus* is the one and *Trichechus rosmarus* the other. Such looseness of nomenclature is quite unpardonable in the present day, and must obviously contribute to increase rather than to remove perplexity. That the common Seal feeds chiefly on the *Salmon-carp* strikes us as somewhat *oracular*. We could have wished, too, that Mr. L. had been a little more explicit, when he asserts that he has 'sometimes seen them (seals) throw back stones and pieces of ice on the sailors who pursued them.' Was this deliberate missile warfare, or only a random tossing up of pebbles, &c. by the extraordinary efforts of the hind feet, in moving along the beach? The

proof

proof of the sensibility to musical sounds which these creatures discover is less equivocal, and deserves to be quoted, because it corroborates the suspected statements of other writers. 'The Captain's son, who was a good performer on the violin, never failed to have a numerous auditory, when we were in the seas frequented by these animals; and I have seen them follow the ship for miles when any person was playing on deck.'

The fish, crustaceous animals, insects, and vermes of the northern regions, the author has carelessly consigned to the most profound silence: but the capture of a whale suggests the luminous position that this animal is of that *genus of fish* termed *cetaceous;* and, almost in the same breath, we are reminded of the 'learned absurdity' of ranking *cetaceous fish* with *quadrupeds:* as if, in strict propriety of technical language, the terms *genus* and *cetaceous* were not utterly irreconcileable; and when, according to every accurate principle of distribution, whales are neither *quadrupeds* nor *fish*, but *mammiferous animals*, with which they have been correctly classed.

The particulars of killing the whale, *flinching* the carcase, piecing and stowing the blubber, &c., are detailed in the usual style. On the 28th of May, the vessel was in lat. 81° 50′, with the sea apparently open to the north:

'During the *flinching* of the whales, there were generally a considerable number of sharks in the vicinity of the vessel. They were principally of that variety [species] termed *Squalus Pristis*, or Saw Fish. At this time, one more voracious than the rest approached close to the side of the whale's carcase, and seized a large piece of blubber, which was ready to be hoisted on board. Before he could make his escape, however, he was struck by a harpoon, and, his flight being thus obstructed, he was attacked with spears; a tackle was immediately fastened to his jaws, and, being hoisted on deck, his belly was ripped open, and the blubber recovered. The carpenter, too, stripped a considerable quantity of skin from his tail. Notwithstanding this rude treatment, he was no sooner let down than he swam away with great agility.'

In the Appendix, our nautical readers will find some valuable hints relative to the variations of the compass being influenced by the line of the ship's course.

ART. IV. *Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting,* &c. selected from the Correspondence of the Bath and West of England Society, for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. Vol. XIII. 8vo. pp. 469. 10s. Boards. Robinson. 1814.

WE occupied some pages of our Number for May, 1812, with an account of the contents of the twelfth volume of this spirited and useful Society's Papers, and we now cheerfully

direct our attention to their farther labours and correspondence. Though a considerable space of time has elapsed since the appearance of that volume, the public must not infer that the Society has relaxed in its exertions for the improvement of the country, but must attribute this apparent delay to the multiplication of institutions for a similar purpose; which, by inviting communications on the subject of agriculture, &c. enlarge indeed the general stock of information, but serve to diminish the number of contributors to any particular body. It is unnecessary to state that such an association as that from which this work proceeds must be attended with a considerable annual expence; and that, being supported by subscription, each gentleman belonging to it should make it a point of honour to *cash up*, as they say at the gaming-clubs, and not oblige the Society to introduce this subject into prefaces, and form fresh regulations in the distribution of the volumes to the several members. After the French custom, eulogies on the deceased, provided that they have rendered themselves worthy of having their names transmitted with distinction to posterity, are occasionally pronounced at this board; and a specimen of this species of eloquence is now given by the President, Sir Benjamin Hobhouse, Bart., on the death of Mr. Billingsley, of whose merit the following short record is ample praise. 'He drained SEDGMOOR! He enclosed MENDIP! He wrote the agricultural survey of SOMERSET!' — We must pass, however, from the preface, to notice, in our usual way, the subjects of the several papers which have here been deemed worthy of publication.

The first communication, which is of considerable length, and purposely written for this Society, proceeds from the well-known pen of Dr. William Richardson, of Moy, Ireland, *On the Cultivation of Fiorin Grass.* On former occasions, and in the transactions of other public bodies associated for the purpose of promoting science and useful discoveries, we have met with papers from Dr. R., recommending his darling *Fiorin Grass*; and we find, by the present letter, that his partiality is rather increased than diminished. Having energetically descanted on the value of this grass, and warmly recommended its cultivation, he now writes more to support his own credit than to obtain the medal offered him as a reward; and, though the *ipse dixit* of no man should obtain implicit faith, the evidence of so enlightened and respectable a man as Dr. R. ought to induce practical farmers in England to make a fair trial of the *Fiorin.* He indeed provokes the test of experiment. 'Should it fail,' says he, 'from the non-performance of my promises (or rather boasts) I have earned the ridicule I bring on myself.'

Before

Before his display of the merits of the *agrostis stolonifera*, and before he can reckon on its cultivation being prosecuted with confidence, he requires assent to the following positions:

'The first is, That man has for five thousand years been cutting grass crops as winter provender for his cattle, without discovering what part of the grassy produce was best suited to his purpose.

'The second, That Nature has been for the same time unremittingly employed in obtruding upon the notice of man this the most valuable of the grassy tribe, indeed by far the most valuable *indigenous* vegetable with which she has favoured our islands; and yet that, at the end of that period, she had not succeeded. I have on different occasions already stated many instances of these obtrusions, and shall now recapitulate some of them.

'Where uninterrupted, this grass is perpetually pressing itself forward. If the gardener did not interfere, you have not a gravel-walk in England which fiorin would not occupy in September and October; shooting its strings (*stolones*) across them. Fiorin is luxuriant in every bog, mire, and morass in this kindom; and I venture to say in England. And I found it myself as abundant in *Scotland* (where I went for the purpose) as in *Ireland*.'

This grass is to be found in almost every portion of the globe; and it is thus discriminated from Couch, with which some writers have hastily confounded it:

'Couch Grass (*triticum repens*) is pure *root*, runs horizontally *under* ground, much interfering with the roots of our crops.

'Fiorin Stolones, running along the surface, send little radicles from their joints *down* into the ground, by which they extract fresh nourishment, that enables them to attain their great length.

'Couch Grass, from its long horizontal roots, sends *up* at intervals, *through the surface*, sprouts, which soon turn into harsh culmi, generally with panicles interfering with our crop *above* the ground, as much as its long strings did with the roots *below*.

'Not content with directing the attention of their readers to a wrong and odious object by confounding *names*, they point their abuse direct against fiorin itself (*agrostis stolonifera*); and, in their careless ignorance, fasten upon its most prominent excellence, the strong predilection of every species of cattle for it. Unhappily too for the credit of these gentlemen, of all the good qualities of the *agrostis stolonifera*, this is the most easily ascertained by those who will take the trouble of trying.'

Dr. R. is fully aware that the great point, which he is required to establish, is not the suitableness of fiorin to all soils, but its absolute value; for, as he says, 'what avails my boast that fiorin grows spontaneously, *and of course may be cultivated* in every acre in the United Kingdom, unless I shew at the same time that its crops will fully reward the labours of its cultivator?' Now, entering on this task, he boldly remarks:

'To

'To effectually establish the truth of *my first position*, my proof must not merely be *positive*, but also *comparative*: simple value is not enough; I must convince the agriculturist of its preference, and that he will find his interest in abandoning the *culmiferous* produce he has hitherto been used alone to save, and look to *stoloniferous* produce, with due attention to the diffence between the *habits* and *periods* of such a dissimilar stile of crops.

'Upon this point of value I have dwelt much at length in different essays; some of which I have taken the liberty to present to your respectable Society.

'In these I have established, by such a mass of evidence as has rarely been brought together, all the prominent good qualities of this favourite grass of mine. The great superiority of its hay over all others in quality: the immense produce it gives, running from *five* to *seven* and even *eight tons* to the English acre: and now becoming by practice better acquainted with it, and having carried my culture of it into more favourable grounds, I have boasted that I hope next year to reach ten tons.'

Is not this a too sanguine expectation? Ten tons per acre no farmer ever yet expected to reap. If this could be accomplished, who would not cry out, *Fiorin for ever!*

It is amusing to follow Dr. Richardson through his account of the properties and mode of treating Fiorin Grass; and, as he obtains hay from it during the rains and snow of winter, he seems intitled to the premium of the Society for Arts for making hay in bad weather. We must transcribe a passage or two on this curious process:

'I proceed now to a property of *stoloniferous* crops (at least those *of this agrostis*,) my mention of which has excited much ridicule against myself, and I have reason to know has greatly impeded the progress of fiorin culture; I mean the hardy, vivifying nature of these *stolones*, which enables them to be kept *as hay* through the whole winter, with as much facility as culmiferous crops are saved in the height of summer.

'This strange paradox, the truth of which, through the winters of 1808 and 1809, I had called in the most public manner on the world to witness, I have established in this (the winter of 1810) on a *great scale*; for not content, as before, with mowing frequently and regularly small portions through the season, I have this winter exposed my *whole* fiorin crop (above thirteen acres) to the severities of brumal weather with the most complete success.'—

'Having cut down two acres and a half in October, I took up the scythe again November 10th, and mowed above an acre, shaking it out and putting it into lap cocks the day it was mown; giving up all thoughts of accumulating it into larger parcels, being perfectly aware there was not any occasion.

'November 20th, a gentleman from Flintshire arrived, sent over for the sole purpose of inspecting my proceedings. The weather was unusually wet; but to satisfy him I mowed in various places, and

and particularly one portion he selected to ascertain quantity. As he wrung the water out of it, he shook his head. *

'I have reason to think the gentleman was highly gratified by every thing *else* he saw, particularly the luxuriance of the crops still standing on peat mire, so wet and low as to be utterly unfit for any other culture; but as he meant on his return to publish his report, I shall leave him to speak for himself.

'From November 20th to January 1st, I mowed at intervals (as I caught a dry moment) two acres and a half; finding it prudent to have a stock of lap cocks before me, as I think the food better, and preferred by my cattle, when it has stood some weeks.

'I shall probably mow about two acres in January, and the remainder of my crop, perhaps five acres, the first dry days in February, reserving what may be necessary for green food to my milch cows.'—

'It may now be asked, *cui bono*, what advantage is to be obtained by throwing our hay harvest into a season so ill adapted to the purpose, and changing the food of our cattle from dry, well-saved hay, to an amphibious sort of a mass, neither green soil nor hay. I reply, that I feed my whole stock on hay, which never puts me to the expense of making or storing, or accumulating into ricks.'

So enthusiastic is Dr. R. in his recommendation of Fiorin, and so singular is his practice, that we seem to be reading a farming romance: but he pledges his honour on the accuracy of his account, and strongly protests against the supposition that a fiorin *mania* has led him astray.

Subjoined to this letter, are various queries which were submitted by the Society to the author. In his answers, which are penned with the same sanguine energy that always animates his style on this subject, he asserts the superiority of his *stolones*; which, 'fortified by the incorruptible principle of life, brave seasons and weather, and preserve themselves sound, when exposed to difficulties under which the *culmiferous* crops would rapidly perish.' Having discovered this property, he mows his *stoloniferous* crops without troubling himself about season or weather, neither of which has the power of annoying him.—When he speaks of making his Fiorin into hay, it is to be remembered that this grass is not reduced by the process on which the Doctor so proudly descants to that state of dryness which is caused by our old fashioned hay-making, but to an *intermediate* stage between it and grass, for which he has not yet found a name. His answer to the fourth query is not satisfactory.

'* When I had reached so far, I dropped my pen, and went to the field, (January 4th,) to examine *these* lap cocks, and found them in the same state with those described by the Earl of Gosford and Lord Viscount Northland two years ago; deep covered with snow, and the hay under it in the very highest order.'

Not

Not tired of the subject, the Doctor addresses also a letter to Thomas Græme, Esq. a vice-president of the Society, *On the Cultivation of dry Heaths, Downs, and generally of light and sandy Soils, with Fiorin.* — Here Dr. R.'s *protégé* is recommended for soils not generally considered as adapted for meadows: but, as 'it is a most hardy grass, able to encounter difficulties and privations fatal to the rest of its tribe,' he is confident of the result. The farmer is reminded that he may expect better produce on his arid grounds 'from a grass which, differing from all other grasses, is unlimited in its period of growth; and continuing to vegetate to a far later season, enjoys the full benefit of autumnal rains, with the certain moisture of later days and longer nights.' The directions given to those who are inclined to try Fiorin culture on dry heaths seem to be judicious; and we should be glad to receive some communications from English agriculturists which would verify all Dr. R.'s representations. We can only say that, if the crops from Fiorin are so very abundant as they are here stated, it is surprizing that its praise does not proceed from a thousand pens, and that winter-mowing and the new mode of hay-making are not in general practice. — We shall be re-called to this discussion in a succeeding paper.

On the Measures adopted by Parliament for lessening the Expence of Inclosure Acts, &c. &c. By the President, Benjamin Hobhouse, Esq. M. P. (Now Sir B. H., Bart.) — *If we cannot do all the good which we wish, let us do all that we can*; this is sound advice, for in many cases only an approximation to what is right can be obtained. How often has the importance of a *General Inclosure-Act* been urged; and how often, owing to the interest of a few who are unwilling to relinquish their fees, has this salutary measure been defeated! The President, however, shews, by a history of the proceedings of Parliament relative to Inclosure-Bills, that the expences attending them have been much reduced; and he suggests other regulations by which such costs may be farther diminished. In particular, he remarks that 'the long protracted attendance of the country-solicitor in town is perhaps the most heavy of all expences. Might not the time of his continuance there be shortened, either by expediting the stages of the bill, or by other regulations?' We cannot suppose that the President has an idea of rendering the comparative population of this country equal to that of China; which, on every square mile, maintains on an average more than three hundred persons: but he offers it as his opinion that, if every acre of waste and unproductive land were inclosed and brought into cultivation, the United Kingdom might support a population of thirty millions, without depending on a foreign supply.

Our

Our venerable and facetious old friend, the quondam Secretary of this Society, Mr. Wm. Matthews, follows the President on the same ground, amusing himself with *the Prospect of an Inclosure-Bill.* What a delightful vision does he here present to us; and how very flattering is he to the Monthly Reviewers! The blush comes through our old cheeks on finding ourselves so much praised: but we cannot, in return for compliments, give up opinions which a glance at poor inclosed districts fully justifies. We are as desirous as Mr. Matthews can be of promoting inclosures, if by this measure the quantity of produce can be really augmented: but we are sorry to say that inclosing more frequently originates in private greediness than in public spirit; and that interested agents often urge the inclosure of districts which they well know can never pay for the ditching and fencing employed, and which in a few years will be returned to a state of waste. Improvements in agriculture cannot be pushed beyond certain limits; and if, to use the old adage, we endeavour *to make more haste than good speed*, we shall not benefit either ourselves or our country. An increased population will require an increase of food, and in course the inclosure and cultivation of a greater quantity of land. Mr. Matthews agrees with us that the march of this improvement must be slow: yet it is more advanced than he imagines; since Hounslow Heath, to which he good-humouredly adverts, and which formerly was infested with highway-men and shocked the travellers by its gibbets, is now generally inclosed, and produces excellent crops.

To promote a spirit of emulation among ploughmen has long been a favourite object with this Society, and the good effects of it have been apparent. We find in the next article a *Report of a Committee appointed to conduct the Trial of Ploughs, at Deptford Farm, Wiltshire, June* 13. 1811, *for the Premiums of the Society*; and we shall most effectually gratify our readers on this occasion by transcribing a part of the Report.

'In executing the commission with which the Society entrusted us, we had the pleasure of witnessing more zeal, exertion, and freedom from prejudice, than has usually fallen to the share of Committees conducting Ploughing Matches. The late experiment at Deptford Farm was honoured with a numerous and highly respectable attendance. Besides which, the number of ploughs sent in competition for the premiums was more than in any other instance in the Society's annals. Eight ploughs entered the field, and these were not merely the *ploughs of the country*, but ploughs of different construction, which excited much interest among the spectators, and caused much calculation on the part of the judges. And, what is worthy of notice, although the premium did not confine competitors to employ any particular quantity of force, there was but *one* plough drawn

drawn with more than two horses or oxen, and that was with four horses of a diminutive class. The soil was stone-brash of a three-years grass ley, marked out in half-acre portions as nearly similar as possible, for the choice of which the ploughmen drew lots. The depth of the furrow was 4½ inches.

'The following is a numerical list of the portions of land; the names of the implements used; the force respectively employed; and the time in which the work was performed by each:

No.		H.	M
* 1.	Mr. Gourlay, a Scotch plough, drawn by 2 horses, in -	1	51
2.	Mr. Patient, a Wiltshire plough, 4 ponies with leader, in	1	39
3.	Mr. Biggs, a double-furrow plough, 2 horses with leader, in	1	2½
4.	Mr. Davis, a Hampshire patent plough, 2 horses, in -	1	56
5.	Mr. Gourlay, a Ransome's patent plough, 2 horses, in	2	7
6.	Mr. Garrett, a Beverstone plough, 1 horse, in - -	2	32
7.	Mr. Gourlay, a double-furrow plough, 2 horses, in -	0	59
8.	Mr. Bennett, a Scotch plough, 2 oxen, in - - -	2	51'

Messrs. King, Dyer, and Baker, who were chosen umpires on this occasion, decreed the first premium to the double-furrow plough, No. 3. drawn by two horses; and the second to Ransome's patent plough, No. 5. The report farther contains this important passage:

'The issue of this day's experiment led us to remark, that the trial of ploughs (originating with the Bath and West of England Society) has overcome, in a great degree, a long-lamented prejudice with respect to the construction of ploughs, and the force * necessary to be be employed; and is gradually introducing a better system, of which the conduct and attention of the Wiltshire farming gentlemen, in this instance, have given an eminent proof. Another circumstance which attracted our observation was, that the ploughmen were chiefly *young* men, who severally set about their tasks with great ardour, considerable skill, and a determination to obtain the premium; proving to the spectators, that while the great and opulent are encouraging the science of agriculture by their patronage, and the *ingenious* are assisting it by their improved inventions, it will not fail through any deficiency of the *labouring* hand, under the encouraging influence of these enlightened times. The judges were so impressed with the meritorious conduct of *all* the ploughmen, that they set on foot a subscription, to be divided among those who had not obtained a premium.'

'* A member of this Society, on the Saturday following the ploughing at Deptford, and who was present, accidentally overtook, on his way to Warminster market, a very respectable farmer; who, in conversing on the subject of the ploughing, observed, that his mind had been thoroughly satisfied of the prejudice against the general expense and unnecessary force made use of in ploughing; and had his father adopted what *he* now was convinced was right, namely, "working on his farm twelve horses instead of sixteen, *he* need not now have been the renting farmer."'

Eulogy

Eulogy on the late John Billingsley, Esq.; delivered by the President at the Annual Meeting 1811, *while the Society was deliberating on the best Mode of perpetuating a good Likeness of their much valued, but deceased Vice-President.* — Pathetic eloquence is generally displayed in the eulogies on illustrious men; and therefore on the present occasion we were a little disappointed by its absence. The circumstances briefly stated in the preface are not here enumerated, but this sketch is given of Mr. B.'s talents:

'Having a mind stored with knowledge, in the application of which he was peculiarly prompt and happy, no question could be brought under consideration, upon which he had not power to enter. When points of intricacy have been started, has he not, by the strength of his reasoning powers, stripped them of all their difficulties? His investigating mind was never satisfied with taking one view only of a subject; he examined it on all sides with acuteness and penetration, and never ceased to sift it, until the course fit to be pursued was rendered plain and easy.'

Supplementary to this Eulogy is a *Letter from the Hon. Richard Peters, President of the Philadelphian Society*, to Mr. Hobhouse, dated Belmont, May 22. 1812, occasioned by the transmission of the Annual Report of the Bath and West of England Society, which contained the foregoing. The observations of Mr. Peters on the kind of praise which Mr. Billingsley earned, and received, are indeed very just, but, alas! will produce little effect on the world:

'Such evidences of merit, authenticated by the unsophisticated impulses of the *heart*, are far more solid and incontrovertible, than are the plaudits bestowed on *heroes* and *statesmen*, by those who are dazzled by the gaudy and deceptious lustre, with which ambition and policy well know how to gild what are called great actions. History employs her pen in recording the ravages of *conquerors*, who desolate the most fertile regions of the earth; and in displaying the events, produced by wily politicians, which entangle nations in difficulties and embarrassements. Seldom, indeed, do we meet, in *her* pages, with any notices of the public and private virtues of private individuals, who, by cultivating and spreading the arts of peace, become more commendable and extensive benefactors to mankind than are the most distinguished amongst those she emblazons; and on whose praises she delights to dwell.'

On folding Sheep in the Day-time; accompanying a Claim for a Premium proposed by the Society for that Experiment. By C. Garrett. — The mode of proceeding is clearly stated; and the writer remarks that he found the sheep thus folded in higher condition than the other part of the flock. The advantages of folding are fully enumerated.

A com-

A comparative Statement respecting the Use of Chaff, and the common Practice of serving Horses, &c. with Hay. By Thomas Williamson, Esq.—It appears from this account that, by feeding cattle with cut-chaff, instead of hay, a very considerable saving is obtained. The difference to Mr. W. was more than half, and yet his horses and oxen improved in condition.

Communication on Ploughing, and the Use of an Index Engine. By C. Garrett, Member of a New Ploughing Society in Wilts.—Much judgment is displayed in this paper, and the whole of it ought to be read.

On cultivating the White Poppy. By Mr. Box, Surgeon, Lavington. With a specimen of the oil expressed from the poppy-seed.—*Observations on Mr. Box's Letter*, by Dr. Cogan.—Mr. Box gives a very clear account of the quantity of poppy-seed gathered from an acre of land, of the weight of a sack of this seed, (192 lbs.) and of the portion of oil to be obtained. On the latter subject, he tells us that a quarter part of its weight may by good management be converted into oil, without the use of hot plates for the expression of it; and, on a moderate calculation, he reckons that an acre of land cultivated with the white poppy will produce 576 lbs. of seed, which would give 17 gallons of oil, worth 17l., and oil-cake worth 3l. 10s.: while the expences would be 15l. 10s., leaving a profit of 5l. With the statement of Van Eys, presented by Dr. Cogan in vol. x. of the Society's Papers, Mr. B.'s account does not tally: but, to explain this dissonance, he supposes that the Brabant sack must be much smaller, or the acre enormously larger. Dr. Cogan admits, in his subjoined observations, that the Dutch acre is nearly twice the size of ours, and inclines to the belief that the Brabant sack is less: but he very sensibly contends that Mr. Box has not presented a fair average crop of white poppy, cultivated in England. His other strictures will probably engage the attention of that gentleman, who, no doubt, will avail himself of every hint from so able a philosopher as Dr. Cogan; and we shall hope to see, in some future volume, farther communications from Mr. Box, who seems to be well qualified for ascertaining every point necessary to be settled on this head. The poppy-oil presented by him is reported to be excellent; and, according to Dr. Cogan, 'for the purposes of the table it is far superior to most of the olive oils on sale.'

We now come to an article of some extent, intitled *Essay on the Improvement of Dartmoor Forest; and on the Means of so much increasing our Grain-Crops as to make future Importation unnecessary; both to be attained by the Aid of Fiorin Grass. Addressed to Sir Benjamin Hobhouse, Bart. President.* By William Richardson, D.D. Honorary Member.—"*Still harping on my*

my daughter," as old Polonius says. *Fiorin* is Dr. R.'s hobby-horse, and he surely rides it most hobby-horsically. After the enthusiastic recommendation of it in the beginning of this volume, he might have waited for the experiments of English farmers, before he had again gone off at score on his favourite topic. It may be remarked, however, in apology, that his attention has been invited to Dartmoor; and that this being a mountainous and morassy district, his *protégé* was the very grass which ought to be cultivated on Dartmoor. 'Should this dreary region (he says) reject the advance of the plough, we are not left without a resource; for, as a *pis aller*, we shall pour down from its bogs and marshes into the low country a copious supply of hay, enabling its inhabitants to apply their present meadows to the growth of the *cerealia*, rejected by our own alpine domain.' He is honest enough to confess that, when called in as a mountain and bog-doctor, he has but *one* secret. 'I have but *one* nostrum to administer, for the improvement of mountain-tracts. Dr. *Sangrado*, in his extensive practice, had but one receipt for all cases, *bleeding and warm water*. I too, whatever mountain-case may be put to me, use but one prescription, *scatter fiorin meadows through your mountains*, and the improvement of every acre capable of cultivation will *necessarily* follow.' Before Dr. R. wrote an essay on the cultivation of so barren and unpromising a region as Dartmoor, it is natural to imagine that he had visited it: but no: this was not necessary. Suppose the worst of all cases, he has his remedy; say all that can be said against Dartmoor, he will insist on it that it will produce *fiorin*; for 'to this strange grass many things fatal to other vegetables are quite innocent:' it will even thrive on poisonous metallic soils.

'Let us then for one moment take for granted, that no other vegetable, applicable to the use of man, can be cultivated in the harsh climate and forbidding soil of Dartmoor, but that the hardy fiorin will thrive and luxuriate upon it. Even in this case the dreary desart may be made a source of great profit: fiorin meadows will afford abundant food in *winter* to all the cattle that graze upon it in *summer*; and the redundance, which may be increased to any amount, will bear the expence of carriage to the low country, and make hay both plentiful and cheap in Devonshire.'

For the means to be adopted in reclaiming and cultivating the elevated and humid district in question, we must refer to the essay, and conclude with observing that Dr. R. perseveres in recommending the experiments which he has suggested, after having received an account of Dartmoor from a gentleman of science who has made a tour through that bleak district.

Report of the Committee appointed to inspect the Crops of Turnips, under Article 7. of Class 3., for which three Claims were tendered to the Society for Premium. — The first crop here noticed produced 34 tons and 8 cwt. per acre of Swedish turnips; the second was estimated at 40 tons per acre: these were raised by Mr. Kemp, of Bathford. On the second of these crops, the committee observes that the turnips all grew with very large necks, perhaps a foot high, resting on the surface, and seeming to lay hold only by their *tap*, here by a ludicrous error of the press printed *top* roots. The third crop, belonging to John Bennett, Esq. of Pit-house, near Shaftesbury, was estimated at no more than 26 tons and 8 cwt. per acre, being not equal to the weight required by the premium: but the excellent management induced the committee to confer on Mr. B. an honorary reward. The third claimant, Mr. Estcourt, spared the committee the trouble of inspecting his crop, having himself discovered that the weight fell short of the stipulated tonnage. To Mr. Kemp, therefore, the premium of ten guineas was awarded. — For the account of the different soils on which the above-mentioned crops were grown, and the kind of preparation which they received, we must refer the agriculturist to the report. The general reader will be struck by observing the quantity of vegetable food which one acre is capable of producing.

Report of the Committee on the Ploughing-Match for the Year 1813. — To the emulation excited by these ploughing matches we have already adverted, and it appears also to be the leading aim of the Society to discourage the application of unnecessary strength. It is therefore remarked, 'One very gratifying circumstance attended this day's exhibition. Although no conditions were prescribed as to the construction of ploughs, or quantum of force to be employed, *all* the ploughs brought in competition were drawn by two horses *only*, managed solely by the ploughmen with reins; affording an excellent example to the district; and corresponding with the constant endeavours of the Society to shame out of use the absurd and expensive practice of using four, six, and even more horses, where two are found sufficient.' Persuaded of the utility of these matches, the committee expressed a wish that their *éclât* might be increased, and that they might occur more frequently.

On the Treatment of a Merino and Merino-Cross Flock of Sheep. By Mr. Garrett. — The object of this communication is to remove the prejudices which have been entertained, and are still circulated, against the Spanish breed. Mr. Garrett informs us that the farm which he occupies is principally hill-land, on Salisbury Plain; and that his flock consists of 950, *i. e.* 500 of pure Merinos, purchased from his Majesty's stock;

and 450 of cross-breed from Merinos and South-Downs. He contends, from his own experience, that this breed is hardy enough to live on our cold hills in the winter; that, in proportion to their size, they carry equal manure to the fold with larger sheep; that the mutton is good; and that, excepting on rich, deep, grazing land, the wool does not deteriorate. He is so sanguine on the subject of Merino mutton, that he hopes to see the day when Spanish mutton will sell for more than any other sort. At present, however, we believe that this is not the case.

The *first part* of this volume ending with this paper, we shall also here suspend our report, and resume it in a following Number.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. V. *The Physiognomical System of Drs. Gall and Spurzheim; founded on an Anatomical and Physiological Examination of the Nervous System in general, and of the Brain in particular; and indicating the Dispositions and Manifestations of the Mind.* By J. G. Spurzheim, M.D. Second Edition, greatly improved. 8vo. Nineteen Copper-plates. 1l. 10s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1815.

THE lectures and publications of Dr. Gall, and his friend and colleague, Dr. Spurzheim, have for some time been very general topics of conversation among the literati of the Continent, where his peculiar opinions respecting the nervous system have made a number of converts. In this country, however, we are disposed to regard such novelties with a more cautious and prudent eye, and little attention was paid to them: but, since the appearance of Dr. Spurzheim's English work, and his public demonstrations in London, the subject has been investigated with considerable eagerness; and, if he has not gained numerous proselytes, he has certainly obtained a degree of respectful notice from many of our distinguished anatomists and physiologists. In Germany, the science of cranioscopy was vehemently attacked, not as being false, but as being of a dangerous tendency; it was held up as leading to materialism, and in course to atheism; it was accused of sapping the foundation of all the bonds of religion and morality; and Dr. Gall was actually under the necessity of flying from Vienna, to escape the civil power. We were surprized and concerned to hear that something of this kind had occurred in our metropolis; so far, at least, that persons were to be found who were weak enough to conceive that our constitution, civil and ecclesiastical, could be overturned by a supposed anatomical

discovery respecting the structure of the nervous system. We believe, however, that this alarm has now subsided, and that the doctrine will be permitted to rest on its own merits; being received, or rejected, not at the pleasure of the Attorney-general, but according to the judgment that is formed of it by men of science.

Dr. Gall had continued his lectures for some years, before he published on the subject of his new doctrines: but a splendid work at last appeared in Paris, the joint production of himself and Dr. Spurzheim; and the latter has now given to the English reader the volume before us, which, though less bulky and minute than the Paris publication, is sufficiently copious to enable us to form a correct idea of the hypothesis in all its parts. It consists of five divisions; 1st, an Account of the Structure of the Brain and Nerves; 2dly, of their Action; 3dly, of their Signs, Physiognomy, and Pathognomy; 4thly, of the Application of the Inquiries to Philosophy; and 5thly, Observations on the Effect of the Inquiry on Society, the Arts, Education, Legislation, and Medicine. These five parts or divisions may be reduced to three distinct topics, viz. the anatomical investigations, the physiological hypothesis that is deduced from them, and the moral consequences which are supposed to follow from the adoption of this hypothesis.

On the first of these points, opinions are almost generally agreed. Although Dr. Gall has met with some opponents, who do not admit his alleged discoveries with respect to the brain, and the relation of the different portions of the nervous system to each other, yet for the most part it seems to be allowed, by those who are competent to decide, that he is a skilful dissector; that he has examined the brain in a new manner, and obtained some curious and important results; and that some at least of the ideas which he has advanced as original are founded in fact. The mode of examining the brain, which had been adopted by all former anatomists, was to commence at one of its external surfaces, generally that which forms the vertex of the head; and to cut off successive slices of the cerebral matter, observing, as the operators proceeded, the different cavities into which they penetrated, and the eminences and depressions which were gradually brought into view. Dr. Gall, on the contrary, always commenced his dissections at the base of the brain, tracing up the parts from the spinal marrow; and, instead of employing a knife, he used a blunt instrument, such as the handle of a scalpel, gently opening and dividing the parts, following their windings, and unravelling their convolutions. This plan of proceeding appears to be judicious, and such as might be supposed to throw more light on the subject

subject than the usual method. As the author observes, what notion could we form of the structure of a muscle, were we to begin at the external surface, and cut it into thin slices; or what knowlege could we obtain of the nature of the body in general, were it to be examined in the way that has generally been adopted with respect to the brain?

The opinion which the present anatomists have formed concerning the structure of the brain is that it is not a pulp, merely inclosed by membranes, and traversed in different directions by blood vessels, but an assemblage of fibres arranged in the shape of membranes, which may be traced through it, and opened or unravelled, as it were, into a simple expansion. They infer this to be the case from the appearances occasionally observed in those instances of *hydrocephalus internus* in which the fluid is accumulated very gradually, so as not to destroy life. The cranium yields to the pressure, the head becomes enlarged, the interior part contains an enormous bulk of fluid, and the brain forms only a thin expansion round it; yet the intellectual faculties are but little impaired.

Another point, on which they lay much stress, is the connection between the encephalon and the spinal column. This part is generally said to be an elongation of the brain, or a kind of appendage to it: whereas these anatomists conceive that the brain and the spinal column are continued from one to the other, without interruption; and that the fibres proceed without any breach or separation of substance. The spinal column is found to consist of fibres, and, like the brain, is divided into two parts, corresponding to the cerebral hemispheres. They describe the spinal column and brain as connected with each other like the trunk and branches of a tree; and, though the resemblance is only an analogy, and not very direct, it may be noticed as in some measure illustrating their idea of the intimacy of their union. It is farther observed that the nerves are the origin and the brain the termination of the nervous system; and it is assumed as a matter of fact that, in the fœtus, the nerves first come into existence, then the spinal column, and lastly the brain. The medullary matter is the essential part of the brain, and possesses the fibrous texture; while the cortical matter is composed of ganglia, is subservient to the former, and intended to nourish, strengthen, and connect its parts intimately together. As the fact of the fibrous structure of the brain is one of the most important anatomical points which Dr. S. endeavours to establish, we shall quote his observations respecting it, and shew the manner in which he answers the objections that have been urged against it:

'The objection, which is opposed to the fibrous structure of the brain, is, that we do not see the fibres when we cut the mass. Sometimes, according to their expression, it *seems* fibrous; but this is, say they, the effect of drawing and pulling this coriaceous mass; and though filaments have been observed also by other processes, this happened, continue they, in consequence of chemical preparation, or of an alteration after death. Such assertions are quite unfounded. In the first place, it is quite impossible to discover the true and fibrous structure of an exceeding fine and soft mass by cutting it. Proceeding in this way, we fail to discover this structure even in those cerebral parts which are manifestly fibrous — in the pyramidal bundles, for instance, and in the great commissure. The fibrous structure may however be proved by other means. In dropsy of the brain, the fibres are very distinct. If, in the healthy brain, without any preparation, by means of a syringe we direct a stream of water on a convolution, and thereby separate its two layers one from another, we may see their fibres throughout their whole expansion. The same result follows if the convolutions of the brain be boiled in oil, or be macerated in nitric or muriatic acid diluted with alcohol. Moreover, when we merely scrape the white substance in the direction of the fibres, we can, with the naked eye, follow them into the grey substance of the convolutions; but when we scrape cross-ways, or side-ways, the fibres are pulled out of their natural direction, and they visibly break off. If then the fibres were the product of coagulation after death, how should it happen that agents so opposite as the water of the dropsy, alcohol, vinegar, mineral acids, boiling oil, and even intense cold, act in a uniform manner upon it. Why, in the convolutions, is the white substance coagulated in fibres, which run perpendicularly from the basis upward? Why, in other parts, is it in horizontal, circular, crossed, interwoven, or diverging fibres? Why do the fibres always possess the same form in the same parts? The only rational answer is, that the white substance is fibrous, and that these are its natural directions.'

The author then proceeds to offer his opinion respecting the nerves. He first divides them into two classes, — the nerves of automatic life, or those which are situated in the abdomen and thorax, serving for the automatic or organic functions, — and the nerves of animal life, or those which are concerned in the intellectual operations. The automatic nerves do not properly belong to the object of the work. The nerves of animal life are subdivided into four orders, those of involuntary motion, of the external senses, of the propensities and sentiments, and of the intellectual faculties. That a difference subsists between the nerves of motion and those of sensation, or rather that these two functions depend on different nerves, we have always considered to be highly probable: but it will be more proper for us to let the reader see how the author supports his hypothesis, than to enter into speculations of our own on the subject:

'I admit

'I admit a difference between the nerves of motion, and those of feeling; because the same nervous fibres do not go to the muscles and to the skin, and each of these parts perform peculiar functions. The nerves necessary to motion cannot propagate the impressions of the sentient nerves, nor these, the impressions of the nerves of motion. These latter produce only the feeling of pain, as do the nerves of automatic life. Muscles do not feel temperature nor moisture; they feel only fatigue. There is, however, no proportion between feeling and being fatigued: it is possible to have acute feeling and to be fatigued. Muscles receive their impressions from within; and nerves of feeling, from without. Moreover, there is no proportion between the size of muscles, and the sense of feeling. The nerves of feeling are only assisted by the nerves of motion, in the same way as the nerves of all other senses. That is; if internal faculties act upon external impressions by means of the five senses, they make use of the organs of motion. Is not the tongue, for this reason, provided with three kinds of nerves, viz. with nerves of motion, of feeling, and of taste? The diseased state also proves the difference between the nerves of motion and those of feeling. Voluntary motion is sometimes impossible, while feeling is preserved or even increased; and sometimes feeling is lost, while voluntary motion continues. From these observations I infer, that the nerves of motion and those of feeling are different.'

Next follow a number of minute microscopical observations on the structure of particular parts of the brain and nerves; the origin or termination of the nerves in the cerebral mass; the nature of the union between the cerebrum and the cerebellum; the commissures, the convolutions, the cavities or ventricles, and their connection with each other. The following is given as a 'recapitulation' of this part of the treatise:

'In this chapter, I have developed our method of examining the structure of the nervous system; I have demonstrated the necessity of admitting as many origins as there are various nervous masses; and I have pointed out the proportion of the grey and white substance in the nervous system, as well as their relation. I have, moreover, considered the differing structure of the nervous parts of the abdomen and thorax, of the spine, of the five senses, of the cerebellum and the brain; I have established the general principle of commissures or unions of all nervous parts which are double; and I have proved the communication of the various nervous parts with each other, and especially of those which exert upon each other the greatest influence. It follows that all nervous parts are formed and perfected in the same manner; that our considerations are general and simple; and that this conformity of all these established principles bears the character of truth.'

The second division, intitled 'Physiology of Animal Life,' may be considered as the developement of the principles on which the metaphysical part of the system of Drs. Gall and Spurzheim is founded. It is described, in awkward phraseology, as

embracing the consideration 'of all the functions of the man which take place with consciousness, that is, animal life.' These functions are divided into external and internal; the former comprehending voluntary motion, and the action of the external senses; the latter, the operations of the brain, or the proper intellectual faculties. This part is distributed into four chapters, the titles of which are, the functions of the five senses; the functions of the brain; the brain is an aggregation of organs; and the means of determining the functions of the brain. The first of these chapters, on the external senses, is not peculiarly interesting; and, although it contains a few useful observations, it appears for the most part to be vague and desultory, and is but remotely connected with the particular object of the work.

Chapter ii. is of a more metaphysical cast, and displays the author's opinions on some very abstruse topics. He begins by examining the difference between the expressions, seat, and organ of the soul; and he briefly notices the great number of hypotheses that have prevailed respecting the first of these points, and the mode in which the immaterial principle is enabled to act on the material part of our frame. On this subject, opinions have prevailed as absurd as those respecting the seat of the soul: but Dr. Spurzheim wisely declines to enter into this disquisition. He farther shews his prudence by avoiding to inquire into the *nature* of the soul; professing only to observe the organic conditions by means of which its actions are enabled to take place, and the phænomena which render these apparent; or, as they are styled, its manifestations. He next proceeds to discuss the question whether consciousness be a property attached to the whole nervous system, or to certain parts of it only, especially to the brain. The author thinks that it is confined to the brain, and employs the usual arguments in defence of this opinion; that, when a nerve is divided or injured, impressions made on its extremities are not perceived; that all sensation is destroyed by compression of the brain itself; that, after the amputation of a limb, we fancy that we feel pain in the part amputated, a feeling which must necessarily have its seat in the brain; and that, as the brain is the organ of volition, it must be the first cause of all voluntary motions.

The objections to this doctrine are next stated. It has been said that the pain supposed to be experienced in an amputated limb depends not on actual feeling, but on recollection; and that, as the brain is insensible when wounded or mutilated, it cannot be itself the organ of sensation. A still more formidable objection has been brought against the doctrine, viz. that monsters,

sters, born without any brain, exhibit signs of sensation, and perform different functions; and it is asserted that, in experiments in which the brain has been intentionally removed, various motions have still been performed by the subjects of those experiments. To these last objections, Dr. Spurzheim replies that, in the case of the acephali, the motions observed were entirely automatic, and consequently proceeding merely from irritation immediately applied to the muscular fibre; that this may have been also, in some measure, the case in the experiments in question: but that, although a considerable portion of the upper part of the brain was removed, it would be impossible to take away all the lower parts, which are probably the most important portions of the organs, without destroying the life of the animal. He is likewise inclined to admit that there may be a kind of automatic or irritative exercise even of the organs of sense, independent of the action of the brain: but he maintains that 'their active consciousness, accompanied by attention, reflection, and will, can be effected only by the operation of the brain.'

A long discussion now follows, the object of which is to prove that 'the brain is the organ of the mind,' a position which perhaps most of our readers will think requires no proof. We are informed, however, that the author attaches a peculiar meaning to the term, or employs it in a more than usually restricted manner; though we do not exactly perceive in what respect the new nomenclature differs from the old. Dr. S. indeed refers, in a loose way, to a number of opinions and statements that have been as loosely brought forwards: but the point which he undertakes to defend is merely that 'the brain is exclusively the organ of the feelings and intellectual faculties.' In discussions like these, every thing depends on the minute accuracy of the language that is employed; and here, simple as the expression may at first view appear, we have unfortunately some room for doubt and disputation. It may be asked, what is meant by the word 'organ,' and in what sense does the author employ the term 'feelings?' We do not, however, mean to encourage a tendency to cavilling, and we shall receive the sentiment in what appears to be its most natural acceptation. The arguments which are advanced in its defence are the following. All parts of the body may be injured or destroyed, but no effect is produced on the faculties as long as the brain remains untouched: if, however, the brain be compressed or destroyed, 'the manifestations of the intellectual faculties are suspended or annihilated.' Automatic life does not require the existence of a brain, and therefore the brain must be destined for some higher purposes. — It is stated

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in the scale of animal life, that 'the number of the faculties increase in proportion to the multiplication of the cerebral parts.' When the developement of the brain is defective, as is the case with ideots, the intellect is also defective; and it is added, as a correlative to the above position, that, 'if the developement of the brain be very considerable, the manifestations of the feelings and intellectual faculties are very energetic.' It is observed that in children the brain is pulpy, and the functions are feeble; that in mature age the brain acquires its greatest developement, and the powers are the most energetic; and that, when the organization of the brain is impaired by age, the intellect undergoes a proportionable change. Lastly, it is stated that 'every one feels that he thinks by means of the brain;' an assertion which is not very intelligible, and which we imagine would be extremely difficult of proof, were a sceptic in Dr. Spurzheim's infallibility to require any arguments for its support.

After having adduced the reasons in favour of his doctrine, the author next arranges the objections against it: but this formidable phalanx is drawn up for the mere purpose of being overthrown. Indeed, the Doctor finds it very agreeable to produce as many objections as he possibly can, and is tempted to multiply them unnecessarily, when he thinks that he has it in his power to repel them as fast as they are brought into view: but this plan is more effectual in forming a book than in advancing knowlege. We cannot coincide in opinion with Dr. Spurzheim that 'the greater number of physiologists, physicians, and philosophers, derive the moral sentiments from various viscera, or from the great nervous plexus and ganglia of the great sympathetic nerve;' such a doctrine having been only partially supported by one or two individuals. We think, therefore, that it is unnecessary to dwell very minutely on this topic. The next is a more direct and important objection; viz. that wounds and diseases of the brain do not produce a corresponding defect of the faculties. This circumstance presses very heavily on Dr. Spurzheim's hypothesis, and is not met by any counteracting force of argument. After having stated the facts that have been frequently urged on this subject, the author proceeds, not to refute them by shewing the deficiency of their evidence, or their irrelevancy to the case in point, but to ask the following questions: 'Was it, before the present time, possible to judge accurately of diseases and wounds of the brain in respect to their nature? and was it, before the present time, possible to judge correctly of the effects produced by them in the manifestations of the intellectual faculties?' Our readers, we apprehend, will feel no hesitation in replying

replying to these questions, but not in a way which will be favourable to the new craniological system. We do, however, meet with an attempt at an argument on this point; Dr. Spurzheim observing that, in certain diseased conditions of the head, half of the brain only has been destroyed or disorganized; and maintaining that, in these instances, half of the faculties have been obliterated. It is stated that the organs of the intellectual faculties, as well as of the external senses, are double; and that therefore we may think with one half of the brain, in the same manner as we see with a single eye. Cases are adduced in support of this doctrine, and we shall quote them as they are given to us:

'Tiedeman relates the example of one Moser, who was insane on one side, and who observed his insanity with the other. Gall attended a minister who, having a similar disease for three years, heard constantly on his left side reproaches and injuries; and turned his head to that side in order to look at the persons: with his right side he commonly judged of the madness of his left side; but sometimes in a fit of fever he could not rectify his peculiar state: long after being cured, if he happened to be angry, or if he had drunk more than he was accustomed to do, he observed in his left side a tendency to his former alienation.'

The other two objections relate to hydrocephalus and to ossified brains; and we must briefly remark that, with respect to the first, Dr. Spurzheim endeavours to prove that, in this disease, the brain is not, according to the general idea, removed by absorption, but it is merely expanded into an investing membraneous body; so that in fact every particle remains there, though it is arranged in a different form. With respect to the ossified brains, or rather those in which, without a change of form, an alteration takes place in substance, the author is disposed to remove the objections which these cases oppose to his system by denying their existence. As the position which is maintained in this section is a necessary step in the craniological system, we have examined with some minuteness the manner in which it is supported; and we must say that, in the first place, we do not discern any novelty in the opinions which it professes to hold out, since they are precisely such as have been brought forwards in favour of materialism; nor do we perceive any peculiar force in the arguments by which they are defended; nor is any particular skill manifested in repelling the objections against them.

We now advance still farther into the peculiar doctrines of the craniological system, and in the fourth chapter the author endeavours to prove that 'the brain is an aggregation of organs.' The object of the last chapter was to shew that the brain is the exclusive

exclusive organ of the mind: but is it to be regarded as one simple organ, or as being composed of as many independent organs as there are different mental operations? We are informed that the doctrine of the division of the soul into distinct powers or faculties is of high authority, and has been adopted by many of the most celebrated philosophers, both in antient and modern times; and a long list of names is produced, beginning with Thales and Pythagoras, including St. Paul and Thomas Aquinas, and concluding with Blumenbach, Soemmering, and other modern anatomists, who have all, under some form or another, entertained the opinion that different parts of the brain are destined to different functions. Of the accuracy of the sentiments attributed to this host of learned men, we cannot speak with certainty; we acknowlege that the writings of many of them are entirely unknown to us, and that even the names of some are now for the first time introduced to our acquaintance: but we may observe that the object of Dr. Spurzheim might have been better obtained by quoting half-a-dozen good authorities, than by bringing forwards such an heterogeneous assemblage; nay, if he had clearly demonstrated that the doctrine in question had been maintained by Haller alone, it would have been sufficient for his purpose. Such an unnecessary profusion of quotations savours more of vanity than of accuracy.

It is, however, of comparatively little consequence whether the doctrine be original, provided that it be true, and we are more concerned with the force than the novelty of Dr. Spurzheim's reasonings. The first argument is analogical. It is maintained that the brain must possess different organs, because, throughout all nature, different substances are necessary for the production of different effects. Every plant has its peculiar properties; the several parts of the body are differently organized; the instruments of the external senses have their appropriate structure; and therefore the mental functions must be attached to different and independent organs. The second argument is a mere *petitio principii;* viz. the faculties of animals are various, therefore their brains must be dissimilar. 'The beaver which builds its hut, the dog which hunts, the blackbird which sings, the swallow which migrates, cannot have similar brains.' Even individuals of the same species vary in their intellect; and the sexes have characteristic traits which distinguish them from each other, and which must be attached to a peculiar organization of the brain. It is observed that the intellectual powers manifest themselves with very unequal degrees of energy in different individuals; one man has a great memory, and another has a lively imagination, while the first is totally

totally void of imagination, and the second has no memory. It is urged also that the faculties manifest themselves at different periods; some are more obvious in children; others in old age; — and this fact not only follows a certain gradation which is common to the whole species, but it experiences numberless varieties in distinct individuals. Dreams and somnambalism are adduced in proof of the plurality of the intellectual organs; and the same is supposed to be confirmed by particular states of disease, when we lose one of the senses while the others remain unimpaired. With respect to all these arguments, it is very obvious that they are not in point: they merely indicate, what every one admits, that the mind exhibits a variety of faculties; while they do not throw the least light on the cause which produces this variety, or on the connection which exists between it and the organization of the brain.

The fourth chapter treats on the 'means of determining the functions of the brain.' The author begins by pointing out the erroneous opinion entertained by some of the antients, who imagined that the absolute size of the brain in man is the cause of the superiority of the human faculties; and he endeavours to shew that the relative size of the brain and nerves, compared with that of the body at large, will not form a standard by which we can judge of the intellectual powers. He also objects to the proportions that have been assigned by Cuvier, and to the methods that have been proposed for ascertaining the size of the brain by Camper, Daubenton, Blumenbach, and other modern anatomists. He next inquires how far the functions of the several parts of the brain can be discovered by comparative observations on different classes of animals, or by observing the effect of mutilations of the brain, either accidental or intentional. The objections that are urged against all these opinions and systems are, in some degree, just; yet we cannot entirely acquit Dr. Spurzheim of a desire to depreciate the labours of others, in order that he may be the better enabled to establish his own peculiar doctrines. Unfortunately, however, it does not follow that his hypothesis must be true, if those of his predecessors be false.

Having proved, as he conceives, that the brain consists of different organs, each of which is the seat of a peculiar faculty, Dr. Spurzheim remarks that, throughout all nature, bodies act with an energy proportionate to their sizes; and it results, by an irresistible deduction, that the organs of the brain must possess a size corresponding with their various degrees of energy. The actual existence of these differently sized organs being thus assumed, it remains to inquire how far we are able

to detect them, and from their magnitude to judge of their energy. This is the grand discovery of Dr. Gall, and constitutes the leading feature of the science of cranioscopy. Probably, most of our readers are sufficiently acquainted with the subject to know that this most important information, respecting the character and talents of individuals, is obtained merely by inspecting or feeling their heads, and noticing the projections and depressions which may be found to exist in different parts of the cranium. In order to arrive at this conclusion, it is necessary to suppose, in the first place, that the skull receives its shape from the brain, and is not affected by the action of external causes; secondly, that the two tables, or plates, of which the skull is composed, are always parallel or nearly parallel to each other, so that the form of the outside corresponds to that of the inside; and lastly, that the organs, which are the seat of the intellectual faculties, are placed on the external part of the brain, or among the convolutions of the cineritious matter. The first of these points we consider as at best doubtful; the second as incorrect; and the third as at least very improbable. With these observations, we arrive at the close of the second division of Dr. Spurzheim's system; and, viewing it as the part which is intended to establish the antecedent probability of his hypothesis, and to detail the grounds on which it rests, we feel that our conviction of its truth must depend much more on the direct facts that can be alleged in its support, than on any arguments that the author has been able to urge in its favour.

Part iii. is intitled 'Physiognomical Knowlege of the Human Mind.' After some vague and common-place remarks on the interesting nature of the subject, and the great diversity of opinions that have prevailed respecting it, (in which the names of authors are quoted with the usual profusion, accompanied by a hasty and imperfect account of their respective tenets,) a kind of historical detail is given of the manner in which Dr. Gall was led to the construction of his new system. According to the account of Dr. Spurzheim, he proceeded on the correct plan of experiment and deduction, simply remarking what particular form of the skull was attached to particular states of the faculties. When any persons came under his observation who were distinguished for any peculiar qualities, he carefully examined their heads; and, by discovering the prominencies in their skulls, he attempted to fix the situation of the respective organs.

'He observed, for instance, individuals who were born mathematicians, mechanicians, musicians, philologists, metaphysicians, poets, &c., and if he found a certain part of their brain uniformly more

more developed than the rest, he termed these cerebral parts the organs of mathematics, music, philology, metaphysics, poetry, &c. In the same way did he observe individuals who from birth were stubborn, proud, courageous, thieves, murderers, religious, &c., and if he found the size of some cerebral part correspond to the degree of these actions, he called these parts of the brain the organs of firmness, pride, courage, theft, murder, religion, &c.'

Observations were also made of an opposite kind; for it is correctly remarked that, 'if energetic actions are at once produced and indicated by large organs, it unavoidably follows that weak actions are at once produced and indicated by small organs. On this account, Gall compared the weak functions of individuals who were almost destitute of particular faculties with the respective organs, and weak organs with the respective actions; and if weak actions were found to correspond to small organs, or small organs to weak actions, these proofs in a negative way confirmed the first conclusion.' Dr. Gall's experiments are stated to have been very numerous: he examined the heads of large collections of children; and he is said by his colleague to have been 'bold enough to address every person in whose head he observed any distinct protuberance,' and to have visited hospitals, lunatic asylums, houses of correction, and prisons. Moreover, he was not satisfied with making his observations on those who were within his reach, or even on the present generation, but procured casts of celebrated men in foreign countries, examined the busts of the antients, and in short was indefatigable in collecting information from all quarters.

At length, we arrive at the result of his labours, the enumeration of the different mental faculties, each having its appropriate seat or organ, capable of being recognized by the external form of the skull. Before, however, we proceed to examine them, it is necessary to notice the manner in which they are arranged, which we shall do in Dr. Spurzheim's own words:

'I divide and subdivide the class of mental faculties, according to the common practice of natural history, into orders, genera, species, and varieties. The expression *Mind* designates the class of faculties. I divide it into two orders: feelings (*Gemueth*, in German,) and intellect. The feelings are subdivided into two genera: propensities and sentiments. The propensities begin with those of eating and drinking; and many instincts of animals belong to this genus, while others, as those of singing and migrating, belong to the knowing faculties. The second genus of feelings consists in sentiments, some of which are common to man and animals, and others proper to man. The second order consisting of mental faculties, the intellect, is subdivided also into two genera: knowing, and reflecting faculties. Moreover, there are different species of propensities, of sentiments,

timents, of knowing, and of reflecting faculties. There are varieties of the different species; and we observe even monstrosities in the manifestations of the peculiar faculties.'

The first genus of the first order, the propensities, contains nine species, to which the following titles are attached; amativeness, philoprogenitiveness, inhabitiveness, adhesiveness, combativeness, destructiveness, constructiveness, covetiveness, and secretiveness. We shall not enter into a minute consideration of all the faculties that are designated by these curious names, but we shall select a few of the more remarkable, from which a judgment may be formed of the remainder. The second faculty signifies the love of progeny, and is supposed to be seated in the posterior part of the head, where it may be detected making a considerable protuberance. It is said to have been discovered by comparing the shape of the skull in those animals who are much attached to their offspring, with that of those who are devoid of these feelings, and leave their young to be brought up by accident. The natural habits of animals vary materially in this respect; and every one knows how much difference prevails between individuals of the human species. Women are in general more attached to their infants than men; and the author argues that this peculiarity, as well as the unusually strong affection of some women for their children and the comparative indifference of others, does not depend on any extraneous or incidental causes, such as nursing or suckling, nor on any mental associations, because it occurs indiscriminately among the poor and the rich, the well educated and the ignorant, and bears no proportion to their other good or bad qualities: but that it originates from a protrusion in the back part of the brain.

As to the faculty of inhabitiveness, it is one of a more singular nature, with the existence of which we were totally unacquainted before the perusal of Dr. Spurzheim's volume. It designates the propensity which some animals manifest to live in lofty situations, and it embraces the desire not only of physical but of moral elevation. This faculty, which causes the goat to feed on high mountains, and which 'in mankind produces pride and haughtiness,' has its appropriate protuberance in the back part of the head, and influences the habits of animals, as well in their most important as in their most minute concerns; since, while it is the origin of some of the most material traits in the human character, we are told that it causes one species of rat to live in cellars and another in corn-lofts, or one kind of birds to build their nests in trees and others on the ground, according as the organ of inhabitiveness is more or less developed.

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The experiment by which the organ of combativeness was discovered is thus related:

'Dr. Gall, having called together boys from the streets, occasionally made them fight: there were of course some who were fond of it, and others who, on the contrary, were peaceable and timid. In the former, that part of the head which corresponds to the posterior inferior angle of the parietal bone, behind the mastoid process (or, in grown up persons, generally about one inch and a half behind the ear,) was prominent, and in the latter, the same place was flat or depressed *. The prominence was also found in the heads of brave and valiant officers, of quarrelsome students, of duellists, and of those whose greatest pleasure consisted in fighting and making themselves feared. This organ is generally more developed in men and males than in women and females, though in certain women I have also seen it very large.'

The observations on other animals coincided with those on the human species; and the organ is not to be found in hares and the timid animals, while it is very obvious in quarrelsome dogs and game cocks. — The tendency which some classes of animals and certain individuals have to build is constituted into a separate faculty, and is accompanied or rather caused by a prominence of the brain at the temples. Dr. Gall is said to have 'found this sign in great mechanicians, architects, sculptors, and designers. The skulls of animals which build, and those of others which do not build, present a remarkable difference at the place where this organ is situated. This is exemplified in the skulls of rabbits and of hares; and accordingly it is known that rabbits build burrows, while hares, which yet generally resemble rabbits, lie in the fields. In the beaver, marmot, field-mouse, &c. this organ is distinctly expressed.' It is stated to be very remarkable in the bust of Raphael, and to have been particularly prominent in a milliner at Vienna who was celebrated for her skill in the invention of new caps and bonnets! Here Dr. Spurzheim makes an observation which is not less just than candid: 'Adversaries of our doctrine may ridicule a comparison between Raphael, a milliner, and a field-mouse.'

As we have thus furnished a sufficient specimen of the *Propensities*, we shall proceed to the second genus, the *Sentiments*. They are nine in number; self-esteem, love of approbation, cautiousness, benevolence or meekness, veneration, hope, ideality, conscientiousness, and firmness. The organ of self-

'* This must not, however, be confounded with the mere bony prominence immediately before it. That serves only for the attachment of a muscle.'

esteem is said to be particularly prominent in the turkey-cock and peacock, and produces haughtiness in the human species; it is supposed to have an intimate connection with the faculty which induces animals to live in elevated situations; and in course it must exist in a peculiar degree among goats, and rats that prefer corn-lofts to cellars.

The organ of cautiousness was thus discovered:

'Two persons at Vienna were known to be remarkable for their extreme irresolution; and therefore, one day in a public place, Gall stood behind them and observed their heads. He found them extremely large on the upper posterior part of both sides of the head; and this observation gave the first idea of this organ. The heads of circumspect persons, and of those who want this faculty, are very different.'

We are farther told that circumspect animals, 'as the stag, roe, pole-cat, otter, and mole, and those which place sentinels to warn them of approaching danger, as the chamois, cranes, starlings, and bustards, have this cerebral part greatly developed.'

The account of the organ of veneration commences with these sagacious remarks:

'In his examination of the actions of man, Dr. Gall visited churches in order to observe the configuration of the heads of those who excelled in devotion. He first observed, that the heads of those who prayed with the greatest fervour were bald: but it is evident that the bald state of the head does not produce devotion; for every bald man is not pious, and though women do not grow bald, yet many of them are devout. Gall, however, observed also, that the heads of these pious men were very elevated.'

We shall now pass to the second order, *Intellect*, the first genus of which is intitled, 'knowing faculties.' It consists of eleven, which bear the following names: individuality, form, size, weight and momenta, colouring, locality, order, time, number, tune, and language. We must observe that the author admits that these faculties, and their corresponding organs, are less accurately ascertained than some of the preceding classes; and it appears that he differs materially in his opinion respecting some of them from his friend Dr. Gall: but the list which we have now given may be considered as comprehending the last improvements of the system, and as being the result of the most matured experience. The faculty of individuality, we are told, is that which renders a man brilliant in society, and which enables him to acquire a general knowlege of all the arts and sciences, without being very profoundly learned. This convenient quality is said to be produced by a projection in the lower part of the forehead; and

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we are farther informed that the same prominence, when it exists in animals, renders them easy to be tamed.

It sometimes happens that the author recognizes the existence of a distinct faculty, without being able precisely to fix its situation. Thus, with respect to the organ of form, which makes certain men great judges of pictures, especially of portraits, and others very accurate crystallographers, — which enables bees to know their hives and cells, and dogs to find out their masters, — all which qualities obviously depend on the same faculty, — Dr. Spurzheim seems not quite determined in what part of the skull it ought to be placed. — The organ of colouring, however, which 'is necessary to painters, dyers, and enamellers,' is ascertained to be situated in the middle of the arch of the eye-brows; and it is this organ which causes some persons to be fond of a flower-garden, and others to have a good taste in the disposition of dress and furniture. — The organ of locality, which is marked by a projection in the middle of the forehead, belongs to great astronomers and navigators, as Newton and Columbus; to dogs who shew sagacity in finding out their homes; and to migrating birds, as swallows, storks, starlings, and quails. — This will be a sufficient specimen of the 'knowing faculties;' and we shall only remark concerning the last genus, the 'reflecting faculties,' that it consists of comparison, causality, wit, and imitation; making in the whole 33 'special faculties.'

The fourth part of the work still remains, intitled *Psychology;* in which Dr. Spurzheim displays, at full length, his system of metaphysics; — and the fifth, in which he endeavours to repel the objections that have been raised against its moral tendency. These we must pass with a very brief notice, partly on account of the unusual length to which we have protracted this article, and partly because we should really find it extremely difficult to trace the author's meaning through all his ingenious speculations. In order, however, that our readers may have a complete conception of the whole, we shall quote the recapitulations with which the chapters respectively conclude; and we shall, by these means, be spared the trouble of going through much obscure if not unintelligible matter, while we avoid the danger of mis-representation.

'I consider as the basis of anthropology this truth, that the nature of man is determinate, and that all his faculties are innate. With this view, I have first refuted all opinions, according to which the faculties of man and animals originate from external impressions, or from certain particular faculties which are said to produce all special faculties. I have next mentioned direct proofs, as the analogy throughout all nature: minerals, plants, and animals, have their peculiar

culiar and determinate nature, and why should not man? In conformity with this consideration, I have demonstrated that the faculties which are common to man with minerals, plants, and animals in general, must be innate in man as well as in other beings. Moreover, I have proved the innateness of the merely human faculties by the constancy of the human character; by the uniformity of the nature of man at all times and in all countries; by the tendency of natural genius; by the peculiarity of every genius; by the determinate character of each of the sexes; by the peculiarities of every individual; by the relation between the organization and the manifestations of the respective faculties; and finally, by the circumstance that man is a created being. As long, therefore, as all these proofs are unrefuted, this principle of anthropology stands unshaken.'—

'From all that I have stated in respect to the knowledge of man, it results that the method of studying his nature must in future be different from what it hitherto has been — that we have shown the real structure of the nervous system of animal life, established a physiology of that organ and of the external senses, and reduced the physiognomical knowledge of the mind and its natural language or pathognomy to positive principles; that the philosophy of the mind must be entirely changed; — that our doctrine does not lead to materialism and fatalism, but elucidates the reality and determinate meaning of moral liberty; — that thereby our judgment is guided in every social intercourse; — that its application is indispensable to artists; — that education and the reform of criminals ought to be founded on the knowledge of man; and finally, that no pathology of the manifestations of the mind can be established, before the conditions of their healthy state are determined. Thus, with respect to the subject of our inquiries, I believe I have justified the assertion, that it seems impossible to point out an object more interesting to natural philosophers, anatomists, physiologists, physicians, artists, teachers, moralists, and legislators.'

We have thus given a full abstract of Dr. Spurzheim's publication; at least of those parts of it which profess to consist of new matter, or which contain his peculiar ideas on anatomy and physiology. We must now, in a few words, state our opinion respecting its merits. In the first place, we are disposed to regard Dr. Gall as a good anatomist; we think that his method of examining the brain is the most likely to discover its real structure; and we are ready to allow that he has exhibited considerable address and dexterity in tracing out the connection of the several parts of the nervous system. Of the metaphysics of the Doctor we cannot speak so favourably; among great professions of originality, and a great parade of learning and quotations, we find very little that is new, and much that is obscure. Some allowance must be made for the circumstance of Dr. Spurzheim writing in a foreign language, with which it is obvious that he is not fully acquainted: but the

whole displays a want of accuracy and arrangement which clearly proves that he is writing on a subject also that he does not thoroughly comprehend. We cannot but remark that he treats the most eminent writers, who differ from him, with an unwarrantable degree of asperity, and speaks of the most distinguished philosophers in a flippant manner, which must tend to impress the reader with a very unfavourable opinion of his judgment and discretion. The physiology of Dr. Spurzheim is like his metaphysics; some parts are common-place, and others obscure; making lofty pretensions, but producing no results of value.

Lastly, we come to his craniology, to which all the rest may be regarded as mere preparatives or appendages; — and on this subject we confess that our opinion is decided, and that we regard the whole as a delusion. The doctrine itself is improbable; the arguments by which it is supported are weak and often inapplicable; while the facts and illustrations that are brought forwards in its support are to the last degree trifling and ludicrous. Indeed, were any one disposed to turn the whole into ridicule, it could not be done more effectually than by quoting the very words of the author. We ought, perhaps, then, to apologize to our readers for occupying so much of their time with a theory which we consider as of so little value: but the doctrine has excited attention in different parts of Europe, and many men of science, many celebrated anatomists and naturalists, are become converts to it. We therefore kept our minds for some time in suspense, and perused the work with more minuteness than we conceive is due to its intrinsic merit: but our judgment is finally made up on the subject; and we feel no hesitation in asserting that, if any connection can ever be traced between the different parts of the brain and the different intellectual faculties, it must depend on a different plan of investigation from that which has been adopted by Drs. Gall and Spurzheim.

ART. VI. *Sketch of the new Anatomy and Physiology of the Brain and nervous System of Drs. Gall and Spurzheim*, considered as comprehending a complete System of Zoonomy. With Observations on its Tendency to the Improvement of Education, of Punishment, and of the Treatment of Insanity. By Thomas Forster, F.L.S. of Corp. Ch. Col. Cambridge, &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Law and Co., &c.

MR. FORSTER is a zealous proselyte to the craniological system of Drs. Gall and Spurzheim, and a warm advocate not merely of the speculative truth of the hypothesis, but of the

moral and political consequences which may be deduced from it. He confidently believes that, in a great majority of cases, the natural character and disposition of individuals may be accurately ascertained by inspecting or feeling the shape of the cranium; and that, having obtained this datum, we are qualified for proceeding with peculiar advantage to model the intellectual qualities by education, almost *ad libitum*. The following quotation embraces a detail of the author's plan, and at the same time affords a view of some of the leading tenets which he adopts:

'The General Principles of the System. The History of the Discoveries whereon the system is founded. The Anatomical Structure of the Brain and Nerves. The division of the Brain into separate organs, and their respective place, and the Physiology of each. They are divided into, 1st, the organs of the propensities; and 2d, those of the sentiments, constituting what the French call L'Ame, and the Germans Gemüth; 3dly, the knowing faculties; and 4thly, the reflecting faculties, constituting what the French call L'Esprit, the Germans Gheist, and the English the Intellect. I shall then briefly consider,—The Application of this system to Education; as regards, 1st, the cultivation of the intellect, and 2dly, the regulation of the moral character. The influence it will have on the mode of adapting to malefactors in houses of correction a punishment commensurate to their peculiar vices. And the improvement of the treatment of insane persons, at present so much neglected. In the course of these observations, I shall briefly notice some of the popular objections made to the new Anatomy and Physiology of the Brain, with the proper answers to each.'

This work is professedly intended for popular use; for which reason, and also because in our account of Dr. Spurzheim's publication we have entered fully into the merits of the new doctrine, we shall not deem it necessary to bestow much minute criticism on Mr. Forster. He indeed appears to be a devoted and even obsequious disciple of the Doctor, assenting to his hypothesis not in its outline or general detail alone, but in all the subordinate parts of it; and he so entirely resigns his judgment to the keeping of his master, that he seems to consider it as a kind of heresy to hold any opinion of his own. Accordingly, in different places, where the subject is more than usually obscure, or the reasoning more than usually futile, Mr. Forster regards it as quite sufficient to quote his preceptor's *ipse dixit*. For example, after having informed us that Dr. Spurzheim thinks that the faculty or organ of haughtiness "is possessed by the turkey, the peacock, the horse, and some other animals," he adds,

'I can discover myself in the horse no elevation sufficient to demonstrate distinctly this faculty; but I yield to Spurzheim's superior knowledge and experience in these matters.'

Mr. F.

Mr. F. expresses some doubts respecting the nature of individuality, and then modestly observes;

'I state this merely as the operation my mind went through before, from repeated reflections, I arrived at my present conceptions of the operations of intellect, because I conceive that what occurs to one person may possibly occur to some other, who may be assisted by observing the progress of thought in other persons; to Dr. Spurzheim, who rectified many of my imperfect views of these subjects, and who has thought longer thereon, I refer the metaphysical reader; as he has recently made, in my opinion, the most philosophical arrangement of the mutual influence of Individuality in the other Knowing Faculties, founded on an accurate observance of the connection between the juxtaposition of the organs and the order of thought, with respect to our knowledge of bodies. The Lectures he is now giving contain a most beautiful illustration of the physiology of this arrangement of organs.'

It is not only in points of argument, or in cases which relate especially to the craniological system, that Mr. Forster is so ready to resign his judgment to superior authority; he does it equally as to his belief in matters of fact: expressing his conviction of the story of the rats, to which we referred in our review of Dr. Spurzheim, and of the arithmetical magpies, &c. From the character and situation of the present author, we have every reason to suppose that he is actuated simply by a love of truth, and by the firmest persuasion of the importance of what he so zealously defends: but, from the mere perusal of his book, we might have been tempted to regard him as employed by Dr. Spurzheim for the purpose of puffing off his works and his lectures, so frequently and so warmly are they commended.

ART. VII. *Eighth and Ninth Reports of the Directors of the African Institution*, read at the Annual General Meetings on the 23d of March 1814, and 12th of April 1815. To each of which are added an Appendix, and a List of Subscribers. 8vo. pp. 90. and 140. 2s. each. Hatchard. 1814. 1815.

To the philanthropic exertions of this truly Christian Institution, we feel it a bounden duty to offer our warmest praise whenever they come under our contemplation, and to call on our fellow-subjects to yield them their most cordial support. It is a noble feature in the moral character of Great Britain, that she takes the lead in the march of humanity; and that, while she stands pre-eminent for science, arts, and arms among the nations of the earth, she occupies even a still prouder elevation in the career of benevolent feeling and charitable activity. If those individuals who are influenced by a cold-blooded, calcu-

lating commerce, and view with apathy the miseries of Africa and the agonies which the slave-trade entails on her children, render us almost disgusted with our race, such men as Sharp, Wilberforce, Clarkson, and their associates in the cause of abolition, convert the blush of shame on our cheeks into a glow of exultation; since they shew that mankind, when pursuing the course which the best principles of nature and religion suggest, are only "a little inferior to the angels" who encircle the throne of eternal love. It is gratifying to observe the laudable assiduity which the African Society has displayed from its first institution; and we are so convinced that its labours will not be in vain, that we cannot better express our approbation than by saying to this band of philanthropists, *Persevere.*

Though the Reports of the Institution, printed from year to year, state discouragements, they present us with views of the chief subject in contemplation which are far from being unsatisfactory. We are obliged to them for a full account of all that has occurred relative to the slave-trade, since the act of abolition. The policy of states, and the avarice of merchants, have in various ways counteracted this humane measure of the British legislature; so that at present this trade, though it was declared at the Congress of Vienna to be "a scourge which has long *desolated Africa, degraded Europe, and afflicted humanity,*" is yet carried on to a considerable extent. France and Spain are still urgent for its continuance, and will not listen to the call of duty and mercy because they are in want of slaves for their American colonies. Russia, Austria, and Prussia having no West India islands, readily concur in the measure of abolition: but France requested that Africa may be desolated and slave-ships crouded with victims for five years to come; and Spain, deeming this period too short for effecting her purpose, urged the continuance of the slave-trade for eight years! If such arrangements are made at the general peace, or if we only wink at the continuance of the trade by the two protesting powers, it is evident that the scheme of mercy in the contemplation of this Institution will be much retarded. Yet the unqualified condemnation of it by the Congress at Vienna is high evidence on record in favour of the great cause; in spite of those qualifying clauses which admit that "ill effects may arise from the *precipitation* of the measure;" and that the general declaration, respecting the immoral nature and cruel effects of this trade, "should not prejudge the period which each particular power should look upon as the most expedient for the definite abolition of the traffic in slaves." It will, we know, be said by some persons, that an object so long deferred may be considered as lost; and that, if on the settlement of Europe the slave-trade be resumed with activity by two such

such powers as France and Spain, their feelings of humanity will be soon absorbed in the lust of gain, and a war may be necessary to induce their most Christian and Catholic majesties to act the part of true Christians. This is the dark side of the picture. On the other side, it may be presumed that, as most of the states of Europe, with Great Britain at their head, have set their faces against the traffic in negroes, the trade will become odious; and that, if the African Institution, with other public bodies, will nobly persevere in their reprobation of it, in extending civilization to Africa, and in urging a kind treatment of negroes in our islands, the whole continent of Europe may, after a time, be brought to say with one voice, *Let this accursed trade be abolished.* For France and Spain, some sort of apology ought to be made. They look with a jealous eye on the superior condition of our West India islands, which, during our prosperous maritime war, have been abundantly stocked with slaves; and they conclude that they cannot compete with us unless their own colonies are equally supplied with negro labourers. Policy, therefore, renders them deaf to our sermons on mercy; and Cuba and Guadaloupe excite a stronger interest with them than the whole African continent. These are the impressions of foreign statesmen and politicians, with which Lord Castlereagh had to contend; and if he contended without absolute present success, it is something to have it declared by the plenipotentiaries assembled at Vienna that the final triumph in this cause of mercy, and of man, "will be one of the *greatest monuments of the age which undertook it, and which shall have gloriously carried it into complete effect.*"

Having thus adverted to the prominent object in these and some preceding publications of the African Institution, we shall now direct the attention of our readers to those parts of the Reports before us which we deem to be most worthy of their notice. In the Eighth Report, the Directors inform the general meeting 'that notwithstanding all the efforts which have been made for the suppression of this execrable traffic, a very considerable slave-trade, carried on under the Portuguese flag, still exists on the western coast of Africa;' — and 'that there is too much reason for believing that a considerable traffic in slaves still exists on the north coast of Africa; whither it would seem that considerable numbers are brought for sale from the interior, and thence exported chiefly to the islands, and the opposite continent of Europe. It appears, too, that in Tunis and Tripoly, and the towns of Egypt, there are regular slave-markets, where men, women, and children, are sold at very low prices.' — A fact is mentioned which strongly marks the pertinacity with which this horrid traffic is still pursued:

'Captain

'Captain Maxwell, of the Favourite sloop of war, who succeeded Captain Irby as Commodore upon the African station, has contributed his full share to the suppression of the traffic in slaves. He has recently returned to England, and has reported to Government, that in November last he proceeded up the Rio Pongas, for the purpose of rooting out the slave traders in that river, some of whom were Americans, and others British subjects. He succeeded in destroying several slave factories, and spiked a number of cannon. The traders afterwards retreated into a strong fort near the head of the river, where they could not easily be attacked by a naval force, and there bade defiance to Capt. Maxwell and his crew. This flagrant outrage upon the laws of England will doubtless engage the immediate attention of his Majesty's Government, and, the Directors trust, will meet ere long with the punishment which it deserves. Captain Maxwell has likewise captured four slave ships.'

On the other hand, we read 'it is a favourable circumstance, however, that, according to intelligence received from Major Chisholm of Goree, the inhabitants of that island and its neighbourhood were beginning to relinquish the trade in slaves, in consequence of the firm and active measures which have been adopted for its suppression; and that few, if any, slaves have been taken away from that part of the coast for a considerable time.'

In that part of the Report which respects the continent of Africa, it is stated

'That all the natives in the neighbourhood of Sierra Leone were busily employed in cultivating rice, which, the Governor says, might be grown in almost any quantity: and, as the white rice of Africa is of the best quality, he thinks that, if cleaning mills were erected at Sierra Leone, African rice might soon be expected to enter the market in competition with rice from India, or even from Carolina.'—

'Dr. Roxburgh, of Calcutta, to whom the Directors have so frequently had occasion to express their thanks, has again obliged the Institution, by sending to them a chest of the most useful growing plants, and a few seeds of the best East India timber trees. The seeds were all safely received; and a considerable portion of the plants arrived alive, and continue in a promising state. The latter have, through the kind interference of Sir Joseph Banks, been placed in the Royal Gardens at Kew, under the care of Mr. Aiton, his Majesty's gardener there; who has very obligingly undertaken to give them his attention till they can properly and safely be sent to Africa, and to prepare them for a sea voyage, and their ulterior destination.'

The Eighth Report concludes with some interesting circumstances which shew the nature of the kidnapping system pursued in Africa to obtain slaves, and the impression which it leaves on the minds of expatriated negroes. The account respects a legacy left to the Institution by a black man of the

name of James Martin, who died at Clifton, near Bristol, in Sept. 1813, and was communicated by the Rev. John Greig, Worcester, a member of this Institution:

'Martin informed Mr. Greig, that he recollected living very happily with his father and mother, brothers and sisters, in a small town in Africa; — that one night a great number of people came from a distance, and surprised and set fire to the town; — that he believed many of the inhabitants were taken away prisoners; and that he, (being young) was carried upon a man's shoulders, for several days together, to the sea-coast, where he was put on board a ship, taken to the West Indies, and sold to a planter; — and that, from the time he was carried off from his native town, he never saw any of his relations, nor knew what became of them. In the West Indies he was afterwards purchased by a British officer, and was brought by him to England.

'Mr. Greig understanding that Martin kept some money, which he had saved from his wages as a servant, in an insecure place, advised him to invest it in the public funds; and, as he had no relations in this country to claim the property after his death, in case of his dying intestate, Mr. Greig suggested to him the propriety of making a will, and, after explaining to him the nature of the African Institution, advised him to leave his little property to this Society. He said he would consider of it; and soon after inquired of Mr. Greig, whether there was any Society for building churches in Africa. Upon being told of the Church Missionary Society for Africa and the East, he said he should like to leave his money equally between that Society and the African Institution. His will was drawn and executed accordingly, and his bequest has since been received.'

We find in the Ninth Report a full account of the negociations and treaties formed by our Government on the subject of the slave-trade; and of the efforts of our plenipotentiaries, when they could not obtain the consent of France and Spain to its instantaneous abolition, to prescribe certain limits to which the trade should be confined for the respective periods of five and eight years. Lord Castlereagh and the Duke of Wellington, it is observed, continued to press on the French government the restriction of its slave-trade to the south of the Line; and they at length so far succeeded as to procure an injunction to be issued by the Minister of the Marine, prohibiting the trade to the north of Cape Formosa, a point situated at about the fourth degree of north latitude. For a proof of the pertinacity of France on the subject of the slave-trade, a stronger evidence cannot be afforded than the fact here adduced by the Directors of the African Institution: viz. that, though Great Britain offered to cede to France an island in the West Indies, on condition that she would agree to an immediate abolition, *the offer was declined.* — As to Spain, it is hoped that she will agree to make the

the Equator the *northern* instead of the *southern* boundary of the slave-trade.

Among other particular causes of regret,

'The Directors have to lament the continuance of a very large slave-trade in the islands of France and Bourbon. They stated last year an opinion respecting the magnitude of this trade; and documents subsequently received, on which they can place reliance, amply prove that their statement was far below the truth; and that a trade to a great extent, and attended with many aggravating circumstances, has been carried on there. The planters, and other inhabitants of those colonies, have also shewn a strong disposition to contravene the abolition laws, and to evade, or resist, their execution by the authorised officers of the British Government: and this disposition, instead of being repressed by the judicial authorities existing there under the French constitution, appears to have been countenanced, if not sanctioned by them.'—

'A flagrant instance of the slave-trade still carried on to the islands of France and Bourbon, and a specimen of the mode of procuring slaves for the supply of those islands, will be found in the following documents:

'*Statement of a Case of Slave Trading lately detected at the Isles of France and Bourbon.*

'About the latter end of October, 1814, a schooner, named the Aglae, was captured off Port Louis, in the Isle of France, by the Magnet government schooner, Captain Vine, after a chace of several hours. In the hold of the Aglae were discovered more than 150 negroes, whom it was intended to land in that colony during the night. From the testimony of an eye-witness it appears, that on board this vessel, of the registered burthen of only 40 tons, with a hold, by actual measurement, not three feet high, were stowed seventy men chained together in pairs, twenty-two young women, and about sixty children, all in a state of perfect nakedness. The only care seemed to have been to pack them as close as possible; and tarpaulin was placed over tarpaulin, in order to give the vessel the appearance of being laden with a well-stowed cargo of cotton and rice. This vessel was registered as the property of one John Salmon, who held several appointments in the Isle of France; but he absconded soon after the seizure of the vessel, and a considerable reward has been offered in vain for his apprehension. It appears that this vessel came last from the Seychelles, a cluster of small islands in the African seas; and, during the nine months preceding her capture, had made many slave-trading expeditions. When captured, there were but three bags of rice remaining on board: so that if the voyage had been retarded by stress of weather, or by the calms which frequently prevail in those latitudes, the consequences must have been dreadful.

'*Specimen of the Mode of procuring Slaves for the Supply of the Isles of France and Bourbon.*

'The following is the case of a Madagascar girl, named Frances, rescued from slavery in the Isle of France, and recently brought to this

this country by Mrs. Power, the wife of the gentleman mentioned in the body of the Report.

'It appears from the testimony of this girl, that she was born in the island of Madagascar, of free parents; that she lost her father when quite an infant, and that her mother gained a livelihood by manufacturing the blue petticoats and shirts usually worn by the natives of Madagascar. When about nine years of age, she was at play in the fields with three other children. They were all suddenly seized by the black servants of a Frenchman resident in Tamatave, the chief town of Madagascar. After having been confined separately for a considerable time, they were put on board a vessel with several others. She says they were three months at sea, waiting for a favourable opportunity to land the cargo of slaves without being discovered. In the mean time, the vessel was observed by a British sloop of war, and, being chased, captured, and carried into Port Louis, and there condemned, the slaves were removed to the Custom-house, where she was clothed. She was thence taken into the service of Mr. Power's family.'

In both of these Reports, the Directors complain of the embarrassment experienced in the disposal of the captured negroes. We cannot afford our readers a clearer view of what has hitherto been done in this business, than by copying the last annual official return made to the Governor of Sierra Leone.

'*General Statement of the Disposal of the captured Negroes received into the Colony of Sierra Leone, to the 9th July*, 1814.

Total Number received -	5925
Settled in the colony, viz. as free labourers, carpenters, sawyers, masons, blacksmiths, &c.; living in the mountains on their farms; the girls at school; the women married in the Royal African Corps, &c. - - -	2757
Entered into his Majesty's land service, men and boys -	1861
Women married to the soldiers at the recruiting depôt -	65
Left the colony, being chiefly natives of the surrounding Timmanee, Mandingo, Bullom, and Soosoo countries -	419
Apprentices whose indentures are in force at the present time	347
Entered into his Majesty's navy - - - - -	107
Apprentices out of the colony - - - -	68
Living as servants at Goree - - -	12
At the Lancastérian school in England - - -	5
Stolen from the colony, two to the Havannah and one to the Kroo country - - - - -	3
Died; chiefly of the scurvy and dropsy, caught on board	283
Total	5925

Sierra Leone, 9th July, 1814.

K. MACAULAY,
Sup. captured Negroes.'

Since

Since Africans, in spite of all our vigilance, continue to be crouded into slave-ships and transported across the Atlantic, and since slavery still exists in our islands, it has been one of the objects of the Directors of this Institution, as they cannot break the chain of the slave, at least to soften his lot. They have been active, 1st, in discovering individual acts of tyranny and oppression, for the purpose of exposing and punishing the authors; 2dly, they have offered suggestions for the amelioration of the slaves in the colonies, and of the law as it relates to them; and, in the last place, they have presented accounts of cases in which the abolition-acts are supposed to have been violated. Under the first of these heads, various instances of the cruelty of planters to their slaves, especially in the smaller islands, have been authentically reported to the Directors, who do not fail to mark such acts of atrocity with their indignant condemnation; yet it is mortifying to reflect how deeply rooted this evil is in the very constitution of West Indian society. The observations here made afford a full view of the case:

'They who have reflected, with a view to any practical purpose, on the means of correcting this unnatural state of society, will not need to be told that it is a subject replete with difficulty. When the limited influence and authority of those who are anxious to effect such reformations are contrasted with the unbounded power, legislative and domestic, of the men who suppose themselves interested in resisting them, it is plain that little could be hoped from a direct and open contest with those by whom the laws of the colonies are enacted and administered. When it is further recollected how much the constitutional authority of the executive government is narrowed by the rights asserted by the councils and assemblies of the islands, and in so many instances conceded to them; with what caution that authority is and must always be exerted; by what various conflicting representations truth may be obscured, where the subjects of complaint have arisen at so great a distance; how incessantly, within the bounds of the colonies themselves, the prejudices of colour are inflamed by education and custom; and with what sensitive jealousy every plan of reform is watched by those who have embarked their wealth in West-Indian securities and speculation; it will not be thought wonderful that the progress of improvement in those islands should be very tardy, and that the Directors have hesitated to propose any measures for the adoption of the British Parliament, till they could thoroughly investigate a question so abounding in hazardous alternatives.

'In the mean time, they have not been negligent in lending such assistance as has been in their power towards the correction of those individual abuses which have been communicated to them; and they are happy to state, that, in several instances, the representations they have made to his Majesty's ministers have been attended with salutary consequences.'

One point in favour of the man of colour has been determined in our colonial courts. Formerly, it was a settled principle "that

"that a black man is to be reputed to be a slave until the contrary is proved;" now, however, by the generous exertions of Mr. Keane, a formal decision has been made in the Court of King's Bench, in the island of St. Vincent, that 'this presumption against freedom and in favour of slavery was not warranted by law.' — It must afford every humane reader extreme satisfaction to observe the assiduity which this board of philanthropists has displayed in supplying the wants of the Africans; by sending them negro-schoolmasters, previously educated in the Lancasterian school in the Borough-Road, with school-books; and by engaging a medical gentleman to go with vaccine matter to Sierra Leone; transmitting also 45,000 pieces of copper-money, stamped with an appropriate device.

On the subject of attempting farther discoveries in the interior of Africa, nothing more is said in this Report than to suggest that a person or persons may be found on the coast fitly qualified for the conduct of such a journey; and to recommend this matter to the patronage of Government, the funds of the Institution being quite inadequate to such an undertaking.

When we examine these Reports, together with the numerous documents which are to be found in the Appendices, and when we perceive how diligently every species of evidence relative to slavery and the slave-trade is collected, we think that they are highly honourable to the Institution itself, and must give pleasure to all those who have minds imbued with the principles of the Christian religion.

ART. VIII. *Lives of Caius Asinius Pollio, Marcus Terentius Varro, and Cneius Cornelius Gallus.* With Notes and Illustrations. By the Reverend E. Berwick. Crown 8vo. pp. 178. Boards. Triphook. 1814.

IN the minute and studied account which we gave of Mr. Berwick's former publications in vol. lxxiii. p. 277., we ventured, on original grounds of investigation, totally to dissent from his representation of the character of Messala Corvinus; and much to innovate on the received hypothesis concerning Apollonius of Tyana. We have no similar protest to file against the new biographies now before us; on the contrary, they appear to us to describe with equity the persons delineated; and, as in solidity of judgment, so in the arts of composition, we here discern a marked increase of skill, a growth towards maturity. The disposition of the incidents is more natural and easy, the references are more numerous and precise, and the dimensions of the parts are better proportioned to

to their relative importance. Still, room is left for higher excellence: pedigrees, which should precede the lives, terminate them; Rollin and Blackwell are used as authorities, whereas the original antient passages on which they rely should have been adduced, and their inferences re-examined: a more lucid flow of narrative, less incumbered with quotation, document, and nomenclature, would facilitate attention, and exhibit more distinct reflections to the memory; and, lastly, all discussion that was necessary should have been thrown into notes; — no modern names ought to occur in the text of classical antient biography.

The first life is that of Caius Asinius Pollio, whose grandfather Herius was a petty provincial mayor at Marrucinum, near Alba, whence his father migrated to Rome. Pollio and his younger brother were born about the year 675, A.U.C. and previously to that migration, if we may make this inference from the name of the younger being Marrucinus. The poet Catullus praises Asinius Pollio as a boy of drollery and wit: but mention from such a quarter is not favourable to the supposition of early purity of habits: while the younger brother was notoriously "good for nothing," and has been satirized as a stealer of napkins at the supper-tables to which he was admitted. — Since Catullus knew the two Pollios in their youth, it should seem that they were soldiers under Julius Cæsar, when he was quartered at Verona, and had lodgings in the house of the father of Catullus; — and they must already have been honoured with the patronage of Cæsar to have visited the family in which he resided. Asinius Pollio was an officer of merit, and was intrusted by Cæsar with a separate command. He passed the Rubicon with his patron; he invaded Sicily in defiance of Cato; he waged efficacious war in Dalmatia; and Cæsar rewarded his services by the profitable government of Spain. After the death of Cæsar, Pollio hesitated about the course to be pursued, and corresponded with Cicero, as if for advice: but he finally decided on supporting Anthony; and, after the battle of Actium, he declared his adhesion to Augustus. Mr. Berwick materially mis-translates the passage of Paterculus, at p. 30., in which this profession of allegiance is recorded. Tacitus calls Pollio *ferocious*, on what evidence it is not known; unless his listening with impatience to an elegy on the death of Cicero may be supposed to authorize the charge; or the fact that Quintius, his father-in-law, was included in the proscription.

Pollio was distinguished rather for the force than the grace of his oratory, which he is said to have rated higher than his hearers estimated it. He attempted tragedy, and wrote a history

tory which is justly regretted; for he had an independent spirit, and harboured Timagenes when under the frown of Augustus. From acquired or inherited property, he became very rich, and spent his income nobly: Virgil, Horace, Gallus, and Varro, were among his favourite guests and companions; and he founded a magnificent public library at Rome, which was adorned with busts and statues of the learned. This library Mr. Berwick states to have been the first which was public at Rome: but, in the life of Varro, he admits that Lucullus had previously opened his fine collection of books to the people. Perhaps the library of Lucullus remained as private property, and that of Pollio was the first foundation-library. *

Pollio had four sons, of whom the third became head of the family, and a daughter married to Æserninus; and in teaching rhetoric to Marcellus, his grandson by this marriage, Pollio took great pleasure in his old age. Descendants from him sat on the imperial throne, which circumstance has contributed to the progressive varnish of his reputation: but the praise of Virgil has done more:—perhaps the poet's farm had been comprehended in the confiscated lands granted to Pollio, and was liberally restored.

Marcus Terentius Varro was born in the year of Rome 637. Serving under Pompey against the pirates, he merited a naval crown; and he took part with his commander in the civil wars of the republic. The leisure which his military duties allowed was devoted to literature; he was intimate with Cicero, dedicated to him a work on grammar, and received from him the literary attention of being introduced into one of the academic dialogues. Varro was proscribed, but exempted from the sentence of death by Anthony, at the solicitation of Calenus, and of Pollio: though his property and books were all confiscated. He lived to the age of a hundred, and was indebted for the comfort of his declining years to Pollio, to whom he was in some degree librarian. He wrote many books, of which Mr. Berwick with meritorious industry has endeavoured to make out a complete catalogue, which we transcribe:

'1. *De Cultu Deorum liber.*—This is noticed by St. Augustine in his seventh book; wherein he says, Varro considers God to be not only the soul of the world, but the world itself; to prove which, he quotes two verses from Valerius Soranus to that effect.

'Jupiter omnipotens, regum rex ipse, Deusque
Progenitor, genetrixque Deûm, Deus unus et omnis.

* The words of Pliny are: "*Qui primus bibliothecam* dicando *ingenia hominum* rem publicam *fecit.*"

These verses Varro expounds, and calling the giver of seed the male, and the receiver the female, accounted Jove the world, that both giveth all seed itself, and receiveth it into itself.

'2. *De rerum humanarum Antiquitatibus*, in twenty-five books, *et Divinarum*, in sixteen, addressed to Caius Cæsar.

'St. Augustine mentions these books particularly, and gives the subjects of each. Of the former he says, that the first six treated of men, the second six of places, the third of the seasons, and the fourth of things; but that the remaining one, which makes up the number twenty-five, and which he says treats of things in general, is placed at the beginning, as an argument to the whole. Of the latter, which treated of *Divine Things*, he says the first ternary discoursed of pontiffs, augurs, and the quindecimviri; the second ternary, of chapels, sacred edifices, and religious places; the third of holidays, the Circensian games, and scenic diversions; the fourth of consecrations, private sacrifices, and public ones; the fifth, of such deities as were known; next, of those that were unknown; and lastly, of both together. The remaining book, which completes the number sixteen, is placed at the beginning as an argument to them all.

'Dionysius Halicarnensis calls the foregoing books *Archaiologia*, from which he quotes the following passage, namely, that the towns of the Aborigines were situate in the Reatine country, not far from the Appennine hills: in other parts of his history, Varro's authority is strictly followed.

'3. *De vitâ Populi Romani*, addressed to Atticus. The eleventh book of this work is praised by Nonius, in his chapter *in Pauperstates*. Vossius says, all the books are noticed by Fabius, in his first book and eighth chapter.

'4. *De Gentê Populi Romani*, in four books, which are mentioned by Arnobius and others.

'5. *De Initiis Urbis Romanæ liber*, noticed by Quintilian.

'6. *De Republicâ libri*, of which the twentieth is mentioned by Nonius, and is called *Arcus, sive causæ*. Books of similar description amongst the Greeks were written by Callimachus, Butas, and Plutarch.

'7. *De Philosophia liber*; in this book, according to St. Augustine, Varro has examined the various sects of philosophy, of which he specifies 280; and from them all adopts the sect of the *old* academy for his own use.

'8. *Liber secundus de Formâ Philosophiæ*, mentioned by Charisius.

'9. *Novem Libri disciplinarum*, addressed to Marcus Ælius Rufus, amongst which is one on the subject of architecture, according to the report of Vitruvius.

'10. *Hebdomadum, sive de imaginibus libri*; from the eleventh book of which, it is said Charisius made some advantage. If I am not mistaken, adds Fabricius, Varro pourtrayed the pictures of seven illustrious men in each of the said books. Pliny, as we have observed before, has given the pictures of 700 famous men. Vossius says, the Hebdomades contained the portraits and panegyrics of learned men, as appears evident from Symmachus's letters to Ausonius. The panegyric that was annexed to the picture of Demetrius Phalereus is still preserved.

'Hic

' His Demetrius æneas tot aptus est,
Quot luces habet annus absolutus.

This Demetrius has obtained as many brazen statues as there are days in a complete year.

' 11. *De proprietate Scriptorum*, quoted by Nonius *in Liquidum*.

' 12. *Theatrales* sive *de actionibus Scenicis libri*, quoted by Priscian in his third book, and by Charisius in his fifth.

' 13. *De Scenicis originibus libri*, mentioned by Nonius and Charisius.

' 14. *De Poetis libri*, noticed by Gellius and Priscian.

' 15. *Libri de Poematibus*, of which the second is noticed by Charisius.—Diomedes praises the poetical books of Varro.

' 16. *De Plautinis Comœdis liber.*—Varro, in examining what plays of Plautus were genuine, has selected 21, which are termed Varronian, from the others which he considered as doubtful. In comedy we are greatly deficient, says Quintilian, though Varro is of the same opinion with Ælius Stolo in asserting, that if the muses were to speak in Latin, they would make use of the language of Plautus.

' 17. *Libri de Plautinis quæstionibus*, quoted by Nonius. This must be, one would suppose, a continuation of the preceding article.

' 18. *Epistolicarum quæstionum libri*, of which the 18th is cited by Charisius.

' 19. *Epistolæ*, addressed to Caius Cæsar, Fabius, Marcus Sulpitius, Fusius, Nero, Marcellius, Servius Sulpicius, Oppian, &c.

' Varro, in his letters to Appianus says, that the Commentary which he gave Pompey when first elected Consul, called "Isagogicum de officio Senatus Habendi," was lost; but Gellius acquaints us that many things on the same subject are to be found in his fourth book of Epistolary Questions.

' 20. *De Bibliothecis*; the second book of this treatise is cited by Charisius.

' 21. *Liber de Vitâ suâ*, quoted by the same author as the preceding.

' 22. *Complexionum Librum sextum*, citat Diomedes.

' 23. *Ad Libonem Liber*. Macrobius alludes to this book in the 14th chapter, and second book of his Satires.

' 24. *Annales Libri*, of which the third book is cited by Charisius, who as we learn from Vossius, says that Servius Tullius was the first man who caused silver to be coined, which exceeded what was coined in the days of Varro by four scruples.

' 25. *Belli Punici Secundi Librum Secundum*, citat Priscianus.

' 26. *Libri de Familiis Trojanis.*—This book treats of the families that followed Æneas into Italy.

' 27. *De Gradibus necessitudinum*—on the Degrees of Relationship, Servius says he wrote a book.

' 28. *Rhetoricorum libri*, of which the 20th is praised by Nonius.

' 29. Περι χαρακτηρων, the third book of which is commended by Charisius.

' 30. *Libri de Linguâ Latinâ ad Marcellum*, of which the seventh book is praised by Rufinus, in his dissertation *de Metris Terentianis*.

'31. *Libri de Similitudine Verborum.*—The second book of this treatise is quoted by Priscian: hence it is probable that these books were a part of the preceding, on the Latin tongue.

'32. *De Utilitate Sermonis,* of which the fourth book is noticed by Charisius.

'33. *De Compositione Satyrarum,* mentioned by Nonius.

'Here endeth Fabricius's list of names.

'34. *Sisenna, sive de Historiâ,* mentioned by Vossius.

'35. *A Treatise on Navigation,* mentioned by Vegetius.

'36. *Tricipitina or Tricarenus,* a Satyrical History of the triple Alliance between Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus.

'Besides all the aforesaid enumerated treatises, I must notice his panegyric on Porcia, alluded to by Cicero in one of his letters to Atticus, wherein he says, "I am inclined to reperuse Varro's panegyric: for I read it so cursorily, that many things may have escaped me." This panegyric was probably written in imitation of Cicero, who compiled a little treatise in the way of a funeral encomium, in praise of Porcia, the sister of Cato and wife of Domitius Ahenobarbus. From the above list of his literary labours, though far from being complete, well might Quintilian exclaim,

'Quam multa, imo penè omnia tradidit Varro.'

It will be perceived from this list that Varro was the encyclopedist of his time, an accomplishment which confers on conversation the power of interesting and of instructing; yet so inferior is knowlege to intellect, that the compilations of erudition presently grow old, and furnish only some fragments of brick and stone to build into the edifices of their successors. Pliny was much indebted to the works of Varro, and has probably preserved to us all that was most worth knowing in them.

Cneius Cornelius Gallus was born of an equestrian family in the year of Rome 687, at Forum-julii Carnorum, now Friuli. Early in life he became attached to Octavius Cæsar, whose fortunes he followed through the perils of the civil war, and from whom he received in recompence the rich government of Ægypt. The guest of Mæcenas, the friend of Virgil, an agreeable poet, and a jovial companion, he seemed to have to sigh only for the constancy of his mistress. He formed, however, at Alexandria, some connection with the friends of Ægyptian independence, which was interpreted at Rome as a conspiracy against the state; and the senate tried him, confiscated his property, and sentenced him to exile: but he preferred a voluntary death to acquiescence in this doom. Augustus lamented the event, and complained that he had not been allowed to define in what degree his friend had offended him.—The poems of Gallus are lost to us, unless the Ciris be one of them: they were chiefly love-elegies, and are ranked by Quintilian below those of Tibullus.

The

The present volume may be read certainly with instruction, and probably with amusement: but it scarcely demands entire confidence, and is not drawn up with conspicuous elegance. We observe even symptoms of feebleness in classical acquirement: we have already noticed a mis-translation of Velleius Paterculus at p. 30.; and another occurs at p. 155., in which the following Latin distich is incorrectly rendered:

> "*Non fuit opprobrio celebrasse Lycorida Gallo,*
> *Sed linguam nimio non tenuisse mero;*"
>
> Lycoris praising, none could Gallus blame,
> And wine, not verses, furnished all his fame;

whereas the meaning of Ovid is rather,

> Not the loose pen on Gallus brought his fine,
> But the loose tongue that wanton'd o'er his wine.

We recommend it to this author to consider his past efforts as studies, or exercitations, rather than as finished performances; and to re-cast them in a more neat and correct form, or mould. He has now before him the mass of old document to be consulted: but from that mass he may, by comparative collocation, derive a completer insight into the native character and orderly progress of his heroes. Our own times have been fruitful of civic broils; and interesting parallels with modern characters might be added to some of the lives. — His style is unaffected, but unpruned: his reflections are rational, but not penetrating.

ART. IX. *The Minor Poems of Robert Southey.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co., 1815.

"*Nos hæc novimus esse nihil,*" says the Laureat in his title-page; and we conclude that the reason for his re-publication of these acknowleged "nothings" is the feeling contained in another classical quotation:

> "*Scire tuum nihil est, nisi te scire hoc sciat alter;*"

which may thus be burlesqued:

> To know yourself nothing is nothing at all,
> Unless to the world "I *am* nothing" you bawl;

and certainly Mr. Southey has succeeded in establishing this truth, as far as the present volumes are concerned. Why he should re-publish a collection of trifles, few indeed of which are worthy of his present deserved reputation, we shall not weary ourselves with conjecturing: but we shall endeavour to give that air of novelty to these poems, which so many

many of them seemingly want, by considering them as susceptible of an application to more subjects than those to which they profess to be applicable, (as containing more, in short, than meets the ear,) and therefore, no doubt, intended by the author to receive their due interpretation from his discerning critics. We do not presume to have thoroughly entered into the hidden sense of all, or even the greater portion, of the early or the later compositions in these volumes: but to some of them we trust that we have discovered as true a key as the key to the Lock in the days of Pope.

First, then, we would ask the most unsuspicious of our readers, whether it be possible to mistake the subjoined extract from the first poem of the first volume, in its esoteric meaning: — whether, in a word, we do not see who the favoured poet and the applauding sovereign really are, whom we contemplate under the shadows of Darius and Zorobabel? The very position of this poem, in the threshold as it were of the temple here dedicated to Cæsar *, indicates to the initiated mind the secret design of the writer. We will not anticipate, however, the pleasure which the reader must feel from his own discovery of these latent significations, and shall therefore proceed to lay before him, without farther preface, some of the pregnant ambiguities to which we have alluded.

Θαρρεῖτε μυσταὶ ———

The Jewish poets are in conference, to determine on what subjects they shall sing before the Persian monarch. They are, in fact, contending for the prize of poetry; for a species, perhaps, of Hebrew laureatship: but this is a mere conjecture.

"To them Zorobabel: "On themes like these
Seek ye the Monarch of mankind to please;
To wine superior, or to Power's strong arms,
Be mine to sing resistless woman's charms.
To him victorious in the rival lays
Shall just Darius give the meed of praise;
The purple robe his honour'd frame shall fold,
The beverage sparkle in his cup of gold;
A golden couch support his bed of rest,
The chain of honour grace his favour'd breast;
His the rich turban, his the car's array,
O'er Babylon's high wall to wheel its way,
And for his wisdom seated on the throne,
For the King's Cousin shall the Bard be known."'

* Virgil, to be sure, says,

"*In* MEDIO *mihi Cæsar erit, templumque tenebit:*"

but this is not the only instance in which Mr. Southey differs from that author.

What

What the 'beverage,' indistinctly mentioned above, may have precisely been, we cannot presume to determine: but, if we were to hazard another conjecture on so dark a subject, we should say *Malmsey*, or *Sack*, as likely as any thing.

The rival poems are too long for insertion: but they are really very spirited and good; and yet Zorobabel justly carries off the prize. — We cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of recording his triumph:

'Then just and generous, thus the Monarch cries,
"Be thine, Zorobabel, the well-earn'd prize.
The purple robe of state thy form shall fold,
The beverage sparkle in thy cup of gold;
The golden couch, the car, and honour'd chain,
Requite the merits of thy favour'd strain,
And raised supreme the ennobled race among
Be call'd My Cousin for the victor song.
Nor these alone the victor song shall bless,
Ask what thou wilt, and what thou wilt possess."'

We acknowlege that we are puzzled by what follows: we shall therefore be satisfied with giving our gravest meed of praise to the spirit and expression of the passage, and proceed to other indications of the design of the whole work; the celebration of the present æra under various types and images.

The 'Poems concerning the Abolition of the Slave-trade' bear too obvious an allusion in their very title, to make it necessary for us to prove the justness of our interpretation by any extracts: while the 'Verses spoken in the Theatre at Oxford, on the Installation of Lord Grenville,' are as clearly of a political nature, and doubtless equally intended to receive a complimentary direction from some judicious interpreter. 'The Botany Bay Eclogues' are, we presume, re-published at this period as a covert recommendation to the Government to extend the practice of transportation to sundry great public defaulters. The 'Sonnets' are indeed of more delicate application, and have escaped all the refinement of Eleusinian interpretation which we have been able to bestow on most of them. Still in some instances they yield to the patent key which we fancy that we have obtained. The unpromising career of the poet in his first efforts after fame, and the uncourtly tendency at least of some of his writings, until they were rightly explained, as at present, are intimated in the following exordium:

'With many a weary step at length I gain
Thy summit, Lansdown' —— (*Sonnet* vi.)

Perhaps the subjoined also may not be without its meaning: but we are not sanguine in our guesses:

'Beware a speedy friend, the Arabian said,
And wisely was it he advised distrust.' (*Sonnet* xi.)

'Farewell my home, my home no longer now,' (*Sonnet* xv.)

may likewise imply a change of sentiments as well as of *seat* (vide the Political Dictionary, article "Rat,") not destitute of a double signification. — Sonnet xiith, 'To a Goose,' has no doubt its secret meaning; and as to the following there can be little hesitation in applying it:

'I marvel not, O sun! that unto thee
In adoration man should bow the knee.'

With the 'Mono-dramas,' and the 'Amatory Poems of Abel Shufflebottom,' we shall not interfere; the latter have some really humourous touches in them, and some heavy attempts to be witty; — and this is the very character of parody and burlesque. "*Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria,*" &c. — Some of the lyric poems are highly animated: but those on 'Horror,' 'Contemplation,' and 'Remembrance,' bear too great a resemblance to one another. — The 'Dactylics and Sapphics,' although confessedly written for the old æra, are most adroitly adapted to the new. 'Youth and Age' well express the changes in our opinions; and the lines 'On my own Miniature Picture, taken at two Years of Age,' begin admirably for the purpose of the author.

'And I was once like this!'

* * * * * * *

——— 'Twenty Years
Have wrought strange alterations!'

We hasten to the 'Inscriptions' in the second volume, many of which not only tend still farther to convince us of the writer's real object in these re-publications and additions, but possess a solid merit with which we are sincerely delighted. We commence our extracts from this best portion of the Minor Poems with the glowing Inscription 'For a Column at Newbury:'

'Art thou a Patriot, Traveller? . . On this field
Did Falkland fall, the blameless and the brave,
Beneath a Tyrant's banners. . . . Dost thou boast
Of loyal ardour? Hambden perished here,
The rebel Hambden, at whose glorious name
The heart of every honest Englishman
Beats high with conscious pride. Both uncorrupt,
Friends to their common country both, they fought,
They died in adverse armies. Traveller!
If with thy neighbour thou should'st not accord,
In charity remember these good men,
And quell all angry and injurious thoughts. 1796.'

The

The 'Inscription for a Monument in the New Forest,' expressive of strong detestation of the memory of William Rufus, is also striking; the Epitaph on King John is very animated; and that which duly celebrates Judge Jefferies is truly commendable: but the 16th Inscription, 'For a Tablet at Penshurst,' is our principal favourite, and we must therefore present it to our readers at the risk of re-introducing them to a well-known acquaintance:

'Are days of old familiar to thy mind,
O reader? Hast thou let the midnight hour
Pass unperceived, whilst thou in fancy lived
With high-born beauties and enamour'd chiefs,
Sharing their hopes, and with a breathless joy
Whose expectation touch'd the verge of pain,
Following their dangerous fortunes? If such lore
Hath ever thrill'd thy bosom, thou wilt tread,
As with a pilgrim's reverential thoughts,
The groves of Penshurst. Sidney here was born,
Sidney, than whom no gentler, braver man
His own delightful genius ever feign'd,
Illustrating the vales of Arcady
With courteous courage and with loyal loves.
Upon his natal day the acorn here
Was planted. It grew up a stately oak,
And in the beauty of its strength it stood
And flourish'd, when his perishable part
Had moulder'd dust to dust. That stately oak
Itself hath moulder'd now, but Sidney's fame
Endureth in his own immortal works. 1799.'

These are the passages which do honour to the author's genius; — to the author of Madoc and Roderick: — these, also, are the passages which prove his undying love of liberty, and that his motto ever was and will be

"*Non ante revellar*
—— *tuumque*
Nomen, Libertas, et inanem prosequar umbram."

The third volume contains nothing but ballads and metrical tales, with which the public are mostly well acquainted; and we therefore here conclude our notice of these unimportant little volumes, addressing the Laureat at parting with the sort of quotation which he seems to love:

"*Si quid novisti rectius istis,*
Candidus imperti."

ART.

ART. X. *Laura;* or an Anthology of Sonnets, (on the Petrarcan Model,) and Elegiac Quatuorzains; English, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, and German; original and translated; great Part never before publisht. With a Preface, Critical and Biographic; Notes, and Index. By Capel Lofft. 5 Vols. Crown 8vo. 1l. 10s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1814.

WE confess that we never yet conceived a very great affection for sonnets; and we had always, till now, been taught to consider them as a minor species of poetry, well calculated, if conceived with sensibility and executed with tenderness, to inspire a transient sensation of pleasure, but of too feeble and too light a texture to exalt the mind to that pitch of intellectual elevation which is the sole attribute of a nobler muse. Indeed, the sonnet appears, from its very nature, to be incapable of doing this; since its sphere is confined within the limits of elegance and neatness, of soft expression and refined idea. All variety of character, therefore, all dignity of style, and all delineation of the contrasting colours and the different shades of contending passions, must in course at once be laid aside, where the whole object is restricted to a few agreeable *concetti*, and the skilful adaptation of certain prettinesses of language to sentiments of delicate and pleasing simplicity. Not that we are by any means insensible to the ever-new and tender strains of such poets as Petrarca, the Tassos, Sannazaro, and Ariosto; or to the merits of our own countrymen, Spenser, Sydney, Milton, and Gray; — all that we wish is not to see the sonnet and the sonneteer outstepping the path which universal consent has assigned to them in the range of poetry, nor claiming that higher station which is alone the meed of greater achievements and a higher strain of minstrelsy. The Sonnet of Petrarca, for instance, may no doubt, *in suo genere*, be regarded as forming models of purity, elegance, and sweetness, and as displaying the perfection perhaps of their peculiar style: but who would venture to place either those or any such effusions of the same school, in competition with the majestic chords which reverberate in every line of the *Inferno*, or the *Gerusalemme liberata?*

Mr. Lofft, however, seems to be the avowed advocate of a contrary doctrine, since in his preface he expatiates much on '*the dignity of the sonnet*,' and enumerates a whole series of names which, we are told, '*stand in the first order of human excellence.*' We suspect that a long and habitual study of his favourite pursuit has here beguiled him of his better judgment; and that his zeal to promote the honour of these "souls illustrious" has induced him to sing their glories in a more enraptured tone of praise than either the *dignity* (if he will have it so) of their

poetry, or the acknowleged celebrity of their name, can justify. The perusal of this preface is no *sinecure*, since it consists of 201 pages of close print, and, together with an appendix, occupies the whole of the first volume. It descants for some time on 'the peculiar amenity, purity, and tenderness of that style of poetry,' by which we are informed the manners of Italy and progressively of Europe have been so happily influenced;—it then enters into a most dreadfully long *prose* on 'the nature, distinction, and definition, of the major and minor systems of quatuorzains, terzinos, ternaries, and terzettes,' as well as their analogy to music, which requires much musical enthusiasm to comprehend, and considerable credulity to believe to be peculiar to the sonnet alone, and not equally applicable to every species of poetry;—and at length it passes on to a biographical account of the principal sonneteers, from the days of Guido d'Arezzo, the inventor of 'the regular system,' who flourished in 1250, to those of the great Alfieri, who died in 1803, inclusive. This is indeed a very wide field; comprehending the life, parentage, and education of a very large collection of authors, about whom the generality of mankind will probably remain for ever in a state of indifference; as well as many of those favourites of the Muse who, from their peculiar pre-eminence and celebrity, will always be endeared to the recollection of every man of talents and liberal education. The detail is probably compiled chiefly from the voluminous and justly celebrated works of Tiraboschi and Crescimbeni, from whose ideas the author appears rather largely to have borrowed, but whose impartial and unerring judgment he has very conspicuously failed to imbibe. We wish that he had omitted altogether the *jejune* mention of some of the minor tribe, in order to have infused colours of a more glowing and vivid brilliancy into characters of universal interest. Who can be ignorant of the birth-place or the age of Dante? or that 'his poems, with much of imagination and sublimity, and even of occasional sweetness, have much harshness and obscurity, both of style and sentiments, amid a peculiar splendour of genius?"—'If his excellences,' continues Mr. L., 'are less striking, his defects and faults are also less in his sonnets. These have simplicity, perspicuity, and even pathos.' That the sonnets of this great master of the song have the same spirit and sublimity which are inherent in all his works, we are ready to acknowlege: but if it be meant to be hence inferred that the sonnets of Dante are in any degree fit to be compared with what are here termed, κατ' ἐξοχην, 'his extended poems,' we must beg leave to assert our most decided dissent. A little recollection, indeed, of the circumstances attendant on the melancholy history of his life will

will soon assure us that this could never be the case; and that a mind so harassed by the troubles of faction, so embittered by disappointment, and so exasperated by injury, was not likely to attain so much success in works of tenderness and simplicity as in the bolder flights of satire and invective. The noble ambition and patriotic ardour, which characterized the early years of Dante, it is well known, were foiled by the resentment of party-spirit, and defeated by the influence of more powerful opponents. With a mind incapable of enduring the bitterness of disappointed vanity, and a heart too irritable to bear the shame of vexation, he willingly withdrew from the public scene of past calamity, and from the tumults with which his country was agitated, trusting for future safety to the tranquillity of private life. In the retirement of exile, to which his later years were dedicated, he hurled the shafts of resentment against those who had been principally instrumental to his humiliation, and mingled all the graces and fascinations of poetry with the bitterness of insatiable indignation. The hypocritical iniquity, the daring outrages, and the despotic edicts of the Pope, the genealogy of Philippe de Valois, and his disputed right to the throne of France, were subjects well adapted to the virulence of the satirist; while the awful mysteries of a future state, the felicities of paradise, the expiations of purgatory, and the torments of hell, were as peculiarly fitted to exercise the imagination of the poet.

Towards the time of the decease of this father of the Italian epic, Petrarca was beginning to acquire celebrity, less sublime and less striking, but milder, more graceful, and on the whole more pleasing than that of his predecessor. In misfortune, however, their fates were in some degree assimilated, since they were both sufferers from unmerited and unexpected disappointment. Yet the grief of the former, though equally or perhaps more severe, was of a less public and humiliating nature; and calamity, which exasperated the mind of Dante, softened and refined the soul of Petrarca. The relentless obduracy of Laura never entirely overwhelmed a mind which had been supported by the hopes of ultimate attainment, until death put an end to the sweets of expectation;—sweets, which, while they mitigated the bitterness of despair, inspired tenderness of feeling and delicacy of sentiment, and tuned the soul of the poet to the perception of those soft and elegant refinements which are the leading features of his song. In either case, though nature created the genius, a sense of suffering inspired the strain; and whether in the frustrations of the schemes of ambition or the tortures of unrequited love, it was assuredly the circumstances of life which gave the peculiar bent to their inclinations, and

that bias to their ideas which marks their varieties of style. To the restoration of learning, which was now beginning to revive, and to the study of the best classical authors both of Greece and Rome, which was daily becoming a more favourite pursuit with every man of letters and genius, we are indebted for the exquisite taste and sensibility, which, in spite of all the tumultuous barbarity of the age, shine so conspicuous in the Petrarean muse. 'This,' says Mr. Lofft, speaking of the poet and his successors, 'gave to their style a pure and elevated enthusiasm of the loveliest kind. It gave to their sentiments a turn, which their times peculiarly required, both with reference to taste and morals. And it gave to their poetry a charm like that of music, a calm, tender, refined, and high delight, which, instead of corrupting, purified the senses and the heart. In the darkness of those days, Petrarch appears as a comet: but not rapid, turbid, and transient; a comet, of the mildest and most benign lustre; of long continuance in our system, and of influence in reviving the poetic atmosphere, then nearly stagnant, which, while taste and literature prevail, never can be forgotten.'

After the death of Petrarca, literature was a second time beginning to share the fate of all earthly affairs, and gradually sinking to decline, when Lorenzo de' Medici, a prince of the highest endowments both as a scholar and a poet, snatched it, as the well-judging Crescimbeni observes, from the dangerous precipice, and by his own personal endeavours, as well as by his encouragement of letters, revived the graces and the sweetness of Petrarca. We must not here pause to dwell on the brilliant genius of this great ornament of his nation and his nature, which his learned biographer Mr. Roscoe has so ably and so fully delineated: but we cannot forbear to add our entire concurrence in the sentiments with which Mr. Lofft concludes the brief sketch of Lorenzo's life, and the account of his premature and lamented death. 'In a short time he had filled a great space; and nothing but utter barbarism overspreading Europe and the world can eclipse the lustre which his name will carry with it to the remotest posterity.'

Among the many candidates for poetic honours, whom the example and the learning of Lorenzo brought to light, Sannazaro, the head of the Neapolitan school, is justly intitled to very considerable marks of distinction: but his success, we think, is on the whole more brilliant in Latin than in Italian poetry.—We cannot attend Mr. Lofft in his elaborate account of all the band of sonnet-writers, whom he has recorded with so much minuteness and precision. Few or none of the Italian school appear to have escaped his observation; and it seems that,

duct, if any one, illustrious for the successful cultivation of a sister art, ever happened, in the simplicity of his soul, to scribble even one sad sonnet, his name is immediately enrolled in the honourable catalogue, and gifted with the glories of poetic fame. The spirits, we imagine, of Leonardo da Vinci and Michael Angelo, would be somewhat surprized, could they be made sensible that posterity, long accustomed to consider them as indebted for their renown to their success in painting, sculpture, and architecture, had, in the 19th century, added a new garland to their wreath of celebrity by the insertion of their names among the poets of their country. Yet such is the zeal of Mr. Lofft in vindicating the merits of his favourite style of song, which he thinks has of late years been cruelly aspersed, that no one, whose name is in any degree connected with renown either in art or science, is omitted if it can be brought to embellish and augment the list. — We shall conclude our remarks on this part of the work with an extract from the author's account of the celebrated Torquato Tasso; not that it contains any novel ideas, or any information of which we have not long been possessed, but as affording a fair specimen of the prose-style of the author, whose command of language and powers of description we place higher than either his judgment or his poetic taste.

'To these litterary endowments, this rare assemblage of poetic perfections and of amiable virtues, Heaven had added the gift of a correspondent person, a noble form, a countenance which could not be seen without esteem and veneration. He excelled in the manly and graceful exercises of those days; his courage was generous and in every sense heroic; his love tender, constant, elevated, enthusiastic.

'The calamities of the *health* of his *mind* — that too delicate and exalted mind for a world like this — enhance if possible our affectionate admiration of his genius and of his heart. He had base and cruel and persevering enemies; but he could not be deliberately vindictive. His wounded sensibility sunk him in melancholy; and sometimes in distraction. But whatever the man suffered, the poet was still invincible.

'Though almost every species of external calamity, of corporeal and mental sufferings, of humiliation and misery, (so far as goodness and genius can be miserable,) threw the deepest shadow over great part of his life, the superiority of his spirit, and the mild lustre of his benignant heart, beam through all.

'His inextinguishable attachment to litterature lost not its animating and consoling splendor in the deepest gloom of his affliction. It calmed the storm; it consoled and bore him above the wreck of all earthly prospects.'

Let us now attend to the Sonnets themselves, which are collected chiefly from the Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, and

and German, accompanied by translations, generally from the pen of Mr. Lofft himself, but not unfrequently from those of his poetical friends. The ensuing translation, by Mr. L., of that exquisite sonnet of Petrarca, on the death of Laura, "*Quel Rossignuol che si sòave piagne,*" appears to us singularly unhappy in not representing the soft and soothing melancholy of affliction, which renders the original so extremely beautiful. How harsh, and stiff is every line, and how unlike the smooth flow of "*Qualis populeâ mœrens philomela sub umbrâ?*"

'Sweetly as the lone Nightingale laments
His offspring, haply, or his mate most dear,
And as the wonted umbrage he frequents,
With sweetness vale and skies are fill'd: — the ear
Lingers on the lov'd notes! me it presents
That he through night accompanies my tear.
While my heart nought but its fond dreams repents,
Thinking on object so divine, death's spear

'Could never fall. — How easy to deceive
The trust of love and hope! — Those star-like eyes
Veil'd in the dust to see could I believe?
But now I feel that I am doom'd to grieve;
And to perpetual tears: — and mid my sighs
Reflect, what most delights fate for least time will leave.'

Far different is the following, by Miss Seward: it is the address of Petrarca to the vale of Vaucluse, the birth-place of his infant-passion, endeared to him by so many memorials, and still productive of such pleasing though melancholy sensations:

"Fortunate vale! exulting hill, dear plain,
Where morn and eve my soul's fair idol stray'd,
While all your winds that murmur'd through the glade
Stole her sweet breath; — yet, yet, your paths retain
Prints of her step by fount, whose floods remain
In depth unfathom'd, 'mid the rocks that shade,
With cavern'd arch, their sleep. — Ye streams, that play'd
Around her limbs in summer's ardent reign,
The soft resplendence of those azure eyes
Ting'd ye with living light. — The envied claim
These blest distinctions give, my lyre, my sighs,
My songs record, and from their poet's flame
Bid thy wild vale, its rocks, and streams arise,
Associates still of their bright mistress' fame.'

Some of the translations from the pen of Miss S. W. Finch, previously to her marriage with the author, are composed with a considerable degree of poetical spirit, though not perhaps with the closeness and accuracy of those of her spouse. The admirers of the Italian sonnet will easily call to their remembrance

brance that beautiful strain, "*Ite, rime dolenti,*" on the perusal of the subsequent translation by this lady; which we think is far above mediocrity, and should consider as intitled even to higher praise, did we not suspect a slight degree of plagiarism from a previous version:

'Go, melancholy rhimes, in pity go,
And penetrate the marble's rigid base
That marks with aweful front the sacred place
Where sleeps my Laura in the dust below.
Yet though on earth her form can never know
The wonted semblance of its winning grace,
And though death preys upon her beauteous face,
Still shall her voice from heaven's wide concave flow.

'Say I am weary of life's joyless day;
Of journeying through this desolated waste!
I trace her scatter'd leaves which guide my sight;
And to the silent tomb my progress haste.
In hope, though now uncharm'd by her mild ray,
It soon shall meet me in the realms of light.'

We are presented with a long series of this lady's effusions, and an equal number of sweet responses from her enamoured suitor, sent chiefly during the progress of his flame, either with some token of his affection or some compliment on the personal and intellectual charms of his mistress. We must, however, reluctantly pass in silence many little pieces of much interest, such as 'On the Anniversary of *our* Wedding-day;' 'To Mrs. Lofft, the Day *after* her Birth-day;' 'To Mrs. Lofft, the Day *before* her Birth-day,' &c. &c. but the following presents to our minds a portrait much too picturesque to be omitted. The author, we are told, is to be imagined as a Grecian shepherd addressing Venus; and we picture him to ourselves in all the fantastic costume of Arcadia, with a pastoral crook in one hand and a basket of offerings in the other, his flock grazing in the valley, and the sheep-bell tinkling over the distant hills: while he marches, with silent step and slow, to prefer his gifts and pour forth his sighs at the shrine of the queen of love and beauty:

'Goddess, I offer at thy simple shrine
These *snowy* beauties of the opening year:
And with them flowers of tenderest blue entwine,
And *Vinca* to the soul of feeling dear.
Where youth and simple loveliness appear
Pleas'd will thine eye and smiles of Heaven incline;
And wheresoe'er propitious thou art near
All is delight and hope and harmony divine.

'But

' But not the offerer of these gifts, I fear
Thou view'st propitious!.... Me, long doom'd to mourn,
The unrelenting fates that never hear
Bar from thy temple; lonely and forlorn!....
And now e'en youth is fled: — nor fits it me,
Loveliest of powers, to breathe one vow of hope to thee!'

At the conclusion of this series, we find such entire confusion, such a *hurley-burley* of sonnets and songsters of different ages, sexes, and descriptions, that we have had considerable difficulty in endeavouring to form any tolerable arrangement of them. Of this deficiency of method we are truly loth to accuse a man of such accuracy, and apparently such an admirer of order and perspicuity, as Mr. Lofft. From an enthusiast, indeed, we do not look for much connection or clearness of disposition, though their absence is generally compensated by splendour of genius and vigour of imagination: but from one who deals rather in downright wholesome truths and plain matters of fact, — from a man of such scrupulous exactness that he does not dare to write 'toward' for 'towards' without subjoining in a note that he has 'ventured to suppress the s,' and adds as a commentary in another place that 'the minor system here leads,' — we might surely have expected some classification, some slight discrimination between different eras and dates, some adjustment in short of the component parts of this long and elaborate performance, which, he tells us, has cost him the labour of twelve years to accomplish. Had only the Italian, French, and English sonnets, which constitute the chief part of the work, been arranged with any attempt at the preservation of some system of chronological order, we should have been far better satisfied. If Mr. L. had also added a short notice of the gradual progress which this style of poetry made from its primæval origin in Italy and Sicily to our own times, — had he entered less into dissertation on the *major and minor systems*, harangued less on the structure of the verse, and paid greater attention to what we conceive would have been infinitely more to the purpose, the structure of the work, — he would have been justly intitled to more honourable suffrages, and more general marks of approbation. When we found Petrarca and Mrs. Charlotte Smith, Tolommei and Mrs. Mary Robinson, Giudiccioni and Wordsworth, following close on each other's heels, and huddled together in a manner almost unprecedented, — when we considered too that these perplexities were continued through *five* volumes, — we really despaired of ever again emerging from such a labyrinth: so that we stood for a while in dismay at the brink of the precipice, like Cæsar on the banks of the Rubicon, hesitating

whether to withdraw ourselves altogether from the peril, or, with the bold spirit of adventure, to intrust our lives (or rather our tempers) to the horrors of the bottomless abyss. Happily, we have at length escaped, uninjured, from the ordeal; though, we fear, not in any great degree either edified or improved by it. Whether our readers will feel disposed to make a like trial of their patience, we dare not to predict. The lovers of Petrarca, we conceive, will find some difficulty in recognizing their old acquaintance in the present disfiguration of his English dress: — the admirers of Italian literature in general may regard the present selection from their darling authors as no very favourable specimen of their fondest objects of pursuit: — the man of letters will here meet with but little to delight him, which he has not before seen, and read, and approved: — but in the boudoir of the fair sex, probably, the compilement will obtain its most numerous defenders. It may serve well to beguile the labours of the toilette, or perhaps to enliven the conversation of the tea-table: but within these bounds, we should suppose, the number of its votaries will be limited; since we cannot conceive that any who are deeply engaged in exploring the mine of learning, or who are involved in the affairs of business, will deem their time and trouble well recompensed by the perusal of it. To such a sweeping judgment, however, numerous exceptions may in course be made: in a mass of such magnitude, doubtless much of the fine gold as well as of the dross will be found: but they are so jumbled and coagulated, that the separation of them becomes in itself a work of time and difficulty. — The following address to Hope, for instance, though probably most of our readers are already acquainted with it, manifests such tender and refined ideas, clothed in language so exquisite and touching, that the oftener we read it the more highly we appreciate its beauties:

'From Julia; a Novel. * — To Hope.

'Oh, ever skill'd to bear the form we love;
To bid the shades of grief and fear depart;
Come, gentle HOPE, with one gay smile remove
The poignant sadness of an aching heart.

'Thy voice, benign enchantress, let me hear:
Say that for me some pleasures yet may bloom;
That fancy's radiance, friendship's precious tear,
Shall soften, or shall chase, misfortune's gloom.

'But come not glowing in the dazzling ray
Which once with dear illusions charm'd my eye;

'* By Helen Maria Williams.'

Oh,

Oh, strew no more, sweet flatterer, on my way
The flowers I fondly thought too bright to die.
Visions less fair will sooth my pensive breast:
Which seeks not happiness, but longs for rest.'

Many beautiful pieces from our favourite poets, Shakspeare, Milton, and Gray, are also interspersed, for the insertion of which the author is intitled to our gratitude. The succeeding elegiac sonnet by Gray, on the death of West, displays such plaintive tenderness that we can never be weary of it:

'In vain to me, the smiling mornings shine
And reddening Phœbus lifts his golden fire:
The birds in vain their am'rous descant join;
Or cheerful fields resume their green attire;
These ears, alas, for other notes repine;
A different object do these eyes require:
My lonely anguish meets no heart but mine;
And in my breast the imperfect joys expire.

'Yet morning smiles the busy race to cheer,
And new born pleasure brings to happier men:
The fields to all their wonted tribute bear:
To warm their little loves the birds complain:
I fruitless mourn to him that cannot hear;
And weep the more because I weep in vain.'

At the end of the fifth volume, is a sonnet on rather a singular subject, the author's '*Original Bar-gown*,' composed in the *Nisi Prius* Court, at the Spring Assizes, Bury. We expected to have found at the same time a companion to the above, on the author's *Original Wig*, and searched for it in vain: but this, we trust, is in reserve for some future *enlarged edition*. We must not omit to pay some tribute to the concluding piece, by Mr. L., '*La Coronna*, or, The Wreath,' which is written with a much greater degree of poetic taste, than any that we have been able to discover by the same author in the body of the work. The harshness and frigidity of Mr. Lofft's versification are here in a great degree softened; his ideas are more approximating to correctness; and his language is on the whole less quaint and stiff.

Such are the fruits of twelve years of diligence. The time allowed, it would seem, has been fully sufficient; and application and study we cannot conceive to have been wanting. Though we have not the honour of the author's personal acquaintance, we yet know him to be a man of diligent research, amply endowed with perseverance in the toil which he undertakes, and possessed of some poetic feeling and some powers of imagination. On these points, we most willingly give him all the credit in our power, and all his due share of

praise: but the quality in which he fails is discrimination: he wants altogether a calm and rational judgment: he has ardour, but it is too impassioned: he has intellectual activity, but it is not sufficiently refined; and he is too eager in the pursuit of his object to perceive, with the requisite degree of sensibility, the nice shades and delicate distinctions which mark the varieties of style. With his selections from the Petrarcan muse, we have perhaps the least fault to find; because, in whatever the genius of that author attempted, he exhibited the same masterly hand, the same brilliancy of idea, and the same powers of imagination: — but Mr. Lofft's quotations from the French are poor indeed; and yet the sonnet is a species of song to which that language is peculiarly adapted, and its poets have successfully contributed. If it were desirable to inundate the world with such a torrent of these sonnets, we could well have spared some of the original pieces to which we have before alluded, in exchange for more of the sweeter strains of Boileau, Moliere, and Voltaire.

Altogether, then, we think that the work will require considerable amendment, before it can deserve the reward of extensive circulation; and the too luxuriant branches must be lopped off with unremitted diligence, before the tree can acquire sufficient energy to bear either an agreeable or a salubrious fruit. With such abilities and acquirements as belong to the very respectable author, and with such an extensive and advantageous field before him, comprizing all the most admired poets of every age and nation since the revival of learning, he might surely have contrived to infuse a greater share of real interest into a production which is every way susceptible of pleasing attractions. With these sentiments, we take our leave of *Laura*; — a name endeared to us by the recollection of a muse which has been the companion of our earliest years; and whose graces, though they possess not, in our judgment, the most animating charms of some among her sister-songstresses, have yet gained so exalted a seat in our affections that the memory of them, we trust, will never be effaced.

Art. XI. *Addenda to the Life of Mr. Park*, prefixed to a Journal of a Mission to the Interior of Africa, in the Year 1805. 4to. pp. 27. 3s. Murray.

While we are ready to admit that every anecdote is interesting, even though it be inconsiderable, which relates to such a man as Mungo Park, we suspect that this Supplement to the Memoir noticed in our last Number was published not so much on account of the new matter which it contained,

as for the opportunity which it afforded to the author for vindicating himself against certain charges and insinuations that have been alleged against him. The information obtained from Mr. Walter Scott does not assist materially in the delineation of the traveller's character. We are told that Mr. Scott confirms the account which had been given of Park's cold and reserved manners towards persons with whom he was unacquainted; and it is easy to conceive that he was often displeased, not only by the impertinent inquiries which were directly put to him, but by the circuitous attacks which were made on him by curiosity under the guidance of finesse or false delicacy. Mr. Park may have been a great lover of poetry: but the evidence produced of the fact would prove every man to be such, for who is not partial to the songs of his native land? At page 5., expectation is excited only to be most cruelly disappointed; we are informed that, 'on one or two occasions, Mr. Park communicated to his friend several very remarkable and interesting adventures which had happened to him during his journey, but were not mentioned in his travels;' and then it is added, 'Mr. Scott is unable to recollect the anecdotes here particularly alluded to!' At page 6., on the contrary, a circumstance is mentioned which we think might as well have been omitted.

'Calling one day at Fowlshiels upon Park, and not finding him at home, Mr. Scott walked in search of him along the banks of the Yarrow, which is there a romantic stream, running among rocks, and forming deep eddies and pools. In a short time he found the traveller employed in plunging large stones into the river, and watching with anxious attention the bubbles as they rose to the surface. On being asked by his friend the reason why he persevered so long in this singular amusement; "This was the manner," answered Park, "in which I used to ascertain the depth of a river in Africa, before I ventured to cross it; judging whether the attempt would be safe by the time which the bubbles of air took to ascend."'

The air which ascends is only that which is carried down by the stone, and the time of its return in the form of bubbles to the surface will depend not on the depth of the lake or river into which the stone or sinking body is precipitated, but on its size, or the violence with which it is thrown. If Mr. Park had no better mode of ascertaining the depth of rivers in Africa, he must often have been mistaken. Was he merely amusing himself when Mr. Scott discovered him on the banks of the Yarrow, and did he mean to *quizz* his friend when asked the reason for his amusement?

A few short notices of some of the companions of Park in his unfortunate expedition are not improperly inserted: but, in our judgment, the calculations of the probable advantages of

African commerce, built on the slender and imperfect details of Mr. Park, might without any detriment have been spared. It is very true, as here stated, that 'at the rates at which he sold his goods to the Africans at Sansanding, his trade (supposing it to have been carried on by a private mercantile adventurer) would have been far from profitable:' but when it is considered that 'he engaged in trade on an emergency,' and to effect a specific object, it was unnecessary to make calculations on such data. The fact, indeed, might so far be regarded as ascertained, that 'the value of silver, in proportion to gold, is very considerably higher in Africa than in Europe, or in any other part of the world with which we are acquainted.'

We come now to the subject which seems to have operated as the prime stimulus in the publication of these Addenda. A long note is given, in which the author of the Biographical Memoir vindicates his remarks on the intercourse of Park with Mr. Bryan Edwards, and on the share which the latter took in the composition of the Travels which pass under the name of the former. The biographer adheres to his original position, and in our opinion completely establishes his point. We shall quote the passage:

'The opinion given in Park's Life was simply this; "that without attempting to determine in what *degree* Mr. Edwards assisted in the composition of the Travels, it might safely be affirmed that the assistance afforded was considerable and important." These words could not be understood to imply that Mr. Edwards was the *author* of that publication; but were meant only to express an opinion (as the context sufficiently shews) that he revised the work throughout, that he corrected and polished the style, expunged or altered particular passages, and occasionally introduced observations of his own, subject to Park's approbation. This is a general description of what is usually done by those persons who prepare the works of others for the press; and it is obvious that such literary assistance admits of all possible degrees. In some instances it may consist only of slight alterations, and is little more than nominal; in others it may affect the whole texture and fabric of the composition, and supersede the claims of the original author. The case of Park's work, if it could be thoroughly investigated, would probably be found to be somewhere between the two extremes; since it must be acknowledged to contain several striking passages bearing a great stamp of originality and strongly marked with those simple and natural beauties, of which there are various occasional traces in the Journal and Letters now published; whilst, on the other hand, considerable parts, and especially the observations on the state of slavery in Africa, may be confidently pronounced, from the peculiar character both of the style and sentiments, to have proceeded from the pen of Mr. Edwards.'

When, by the management which Mr. Edwards employed, Park was made to appear as indifferent to African slavery, and

even as an advocate for the slave-trade, it became the duty of a person connected with the African Institution to place this matter in a clear point of view; and we approve the Editor's conduct, for which he offers a sufficient apology:

'The writer would have consulted his own ease, and acted more conformably to those rules of prudence which have been too often practised by writers of biography, had he avoided the mention of this topic. But he had undertaken to write Mr. Park's Life, not to compose his Panegyric. In performing this duty he conceived himself bound to exhibit, as far as was in his power, a just and perfect delineation of his character and conduct; and he would have violated this obligation by the suppression of any important truth. Many obvious considerations might have deterred him from alluding to the only incident in Mr. Park's life, which casts the slightest shade over the amiable and excellent character of that distinguished traveller. But the general impression which the publication of his Travels produced during the discussions on the slave-trade, and the reports, then prevalent, as to Mr. Edwards's share in that publication, are facts, which no person acquainted with the history of those times will deny to be *true*; and, in the judgment of the editor, they were *important* *. A fair and candid statement of the circumstances attending the composition of that work was due to the public, and indeed to Mr. Park himself; against whom it is well known that strong prejudices have existed in the minds of numerous individuals who are warmly attached to the cause of the Abolition.'

The last note respects the question on the termination of the Niger. Some persons, crediting reports more recent than those of Park, have supposed that this river runs into the Congo, and is identified with it: but the safest way for the present is to suspend even our conjectures, and to wait the result of those *two* expeditions which are shortly to take place under the directions of Government, and from which it appears that the wishes of the African Institution, mentioned in a preceding article, (p. 175.) have not been in vain.

'The former of these is intended to pursue the course of the Niger, and ascertain the progress and termination of that river, as far as can be effected by following the plans of Mr. Park; the latter is to proceed immediately to the mouth of the Congo, and explore the course of that river, according to the suggestion of Mr. Maxwell, author of the Chart of the Congo, the very intelligent friend of Mr. Park, from whose correspondence several extracts have been given in the third note of the Appendix to this work. The duty of directing and

'* That the question relating to Mr. Edwards's concern in the publication of these Travels was thought of importance by Mr. Park's family, is apparent from their transmitting to the editor, among the papers which were to serve as materials for the Memoir, the Correspondence with Sir William Young, together with an examination of this question by Park's brother-in-law, Mr. Buchanan.'

superintending the preparations for the former of these important missions has been committed by Government to Major-General Sir James Willoughby Gordon, Quarter-Master-General of the British forces; the arrangements for the latter have been entrusted to John Barrow, Esq. Secretary of the Admiralty. The nomination of these gentlemen to the services in question cannot fail to be highly satisfactory to the public; as it affords the best assurance of ultimate success to the undertakings, which can be derived from great zeal and ability on the part of those, to whom the care of superintending the preparations is entrusted.'

Of these expeditions, the latter is the least hazardous, and the result must decide the question at issue: but to re-trace Park's steps will be perilous. With these vast undertakings for prosecuting discoveries in the interior of the immense peninsula of Africa, others of a less imposing kind might perhaps be advantageously combined. Why are not some persons sent to Egypt, to be united with those caravans which traverse Africa, visiting the great city of Tombuctoo, which no European has yet seen, and proceeding to the western coast? The leaders of these caravans, or coffles, might be induced by a stipulated reward to pledge themselves for the safe conduct of the Europeans through the whole of their route, and undertake to convey them first to Tombuctoo and then to the shores of the Atlantic.

ART. XII. *The Morbid Anatomy of the Liver;* being an Inquiry into the Anatomical Character, Symptoms, and Treatment of certain Diseases which impair or destroy the Structure of that Viscus. Parts I. and II. By J. R. Farre, M.D. 4to. 15s. each. Longman and Co. 1812 and 1815.

Two numbers only of this work have hitherto appeared. It is intended to be limited to the investigation of tumours, scrofulous affections, and inflammation of the liver; and the object of the author is to detail a history of the symptoms of the case and treatment, to give a minute account of the morbid appearances discovered after death, and to exhibit the changes by a series of highly finished coloured engravings. The importance of combining the history of cases with the representations of them after death is most obvious; and, indeed, without this combination, the mere appearances of disease are comparatively of little value in the practice of medicine, being serviceable scarcely any farther than as illustrating the principles of physiology or pathology.

The first order of diseases of the liver includes tumours, which are thus defined: 'Swellings, either circumscribed or diffused, generally differing in structure from the natural textures of the affected

affected organs, and increasing in bulk by an inherent growth.' Our readers will perceive that Dr. Farre restricts the meaning of the term *tumour* nearly as Mr. Abernethy had done, to swellings which arise from some new production that made no part of the original structure of the body. The first genus of the order consists of the *tubera*, which are defined to be 'tumours of a cellular structure and fungous nature, producing, in general, remarkable elevations on the surfaces of the affected parts.' Two species only are described, the *tubera circumscripta* and the *tubera diffusa*.

The following character is given of the former:

'Their colour inclines to a yellowish white, they elevate the peritoneal tunic of the liver, and their projecting surfaces, slightly variegated with red vessels, deviate from a regular swell by a peculiar indentation at or near their centres, which are perfectly white and opaque. They vary much in size, which depends on the duration of each tuber; for at its first appearance it is very minute, but during its growth it assumes the character above described, and at its maturity exceeds an inch in its diameter. They adhere intimately to the liver, and their figure is well defined. In the interstices of the tubera, the liver is paler and more flabby, its cohesion is weaker than natural, and slight effusions of blood are sometimes found. They commonly remain distinct at the surface of the liver, but internally they ultimately coalesce, and form immense morbid masses which pervade its substance. The patient often lives until the mass occupies the greatest part of the abdomen, and the natural structure of the liver is nearly supplanted. They possess so close a cellular structure, that the section of them, at first view, appears solid and inorganic; but on the edge of the knife, by which they have been dissevered, an opaque white fluid, of the consistence of cream, is left, and a fresh portion of this fluid is gathered on it at each time that it is repassed over the surface of the section. Their cellular structure becomes more apparent after long maceration.'

In conjunction with the character, we shall quote the author's account of the symptoms:

'The patient suffers pain in the region of the liver, languor, loss of appetite, and cough; but until the liver, by the growth of the tubera, descends below the hypochondria, a distinct judgment of the case cannot be formed: then the functions of the alimentary canal are more impaired, the body wastes, and the enlargement of the liver, its hardness, and remarkable irregularity of surface, may be distinguished through the parietes of the abdomen. In the advanced stage the patient is distressed by its enormous bulk, the respiration is oppressed, the bowels are prone to diarrhœa. Neither jaundice nor serous effusion into the peritoneum are symptomatic of this disease: they may be conjoined, but it is an accidental circumstance, rather than a necessary consequence.'

Two

Two cases of this disease are related, in which we find an ample account of the symptoms before death, and of the appearances on dissection, accompanied by apparently a very characteristic engraving. Dr. Farre observes that what he calls *tubera circumscripta* have been named by Dr. Baillie the large white tubercle of the liver, and that this anatomist considers it as of a scrofulous nature. Dr. F., however, ventures to dissent from this high authority, both as to the name and his opinion of the disease; thus stating his reasons with respect to this latter point: 'First, the *tubera circumscripta* are distinctly allied to the *tubera diffusa*, which unquestionably fall under the tribe of fungous diseases. Secondly, the *tubera circumscripta* differ from the *tubera strumosa* in their character and termination.'

The character and symptoms of the second species of tuber, the *diffusum*, are thus stated:

'These tumours not only pervade the substance of the liver in a distinct or in a confluent form, but also appear at its surface, elevating more or less its peritoneal tunic. They rise from the surface of the liver with a more gradual and uniform swell than the tubera circumscripta, and are, in different subjects, of various figures, sizes, colours, and consistence, often pulpy. No texture seems to escape the ravages of this fungus. It appears indifferently in all the viscera, in the cellular membrane, and even in the bones.

'*Symptoms.* These vary in proportion to the varied seats of the disease: the diagnosis, therefore, must depend on one of the circumstances from which its name is derived, viz. its dispersion through many textures of the body. But when this disease affects the liver in particular, then the symptoms will not materially vary from those which accompany the tubera circumscripta.'

Two cases here also are detailed, which are to be regarded as specimens of the disease under its most usual form; and afterward, in the second number, we enter on its varieties. These are said to be too numerous to be all particularly noticed: but Dr. Farre selects some of the most remarkable of them, in which the character, symptoms, and appearances on dissection are given, with the usual appendage of engravings. We shall not follow Dr. F. through these varieties, because we have already afforded a sufficient specimen of his manner of describing diseases. We have no means of determining the plan which will be pursued in the remaining numbers: but enough is published to enable us to speak very favourably of the talents of Dr. Farre as an accurate narrator of cases, a diligent examiner of morbid parts, and a correct discriminator between the different shades of disease. The engravings are remarkably beautiful, and very expressive.

ART.

ART. XIII. *A Treatise on Mechanics;* intended as an Introduction to the Study of Natural Philosophy. By the Rev. B. Bridge, B.D. F.R.S. Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in the East-India College. 8vo. pp. 600. 11. 1s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1814.

THE contents of this work appeared about two years since, in two volumes, under the title of "An Introduction to the Study of Natural Philosophy:" but the author's attention having been called, a few months after its appearance, to an error in the solution of a problem in the latter part of the performance, he has been induced to reprint the pages which contained that error, and a few other pages in different parts of both volumes, in all about 40, and to re-publish the whole as two volumes combined in one under the different title, viz. 'A Treatise on Mechanics.' To this change of title, however, we should have objected, because many of the purchasers of the "Introduction" in its original form may thus be led to consider the present as a distinct treatise, and to incur the expence of a second purchase. We think, also, that the author has not been sufficiently explicit in his advertisement, which has very much the appearance of a preface to a second edition. He says;

'This work had been published some months, when the author's attention was called to an error in the solution of the Problem at page 185., Part IV. This mistake is now corrected; and the principle of the solution of the Problem as it stands at present will be found to agree with that by which it is solved in *Simson's Miscellaneous Tracts*, page 131., *Ed.* 1757. In the revision of the work, some further corrections and alterations have been made. The substance of the notes, which were annexed to the end of Part II., are now introduced into the text: and a new form has been given to the First Lecture. The work is still divided into four parts.'

We would not be supposed to insinuate that the Professor entertained the idea of deceiving his readers by any ambiguity, but we acknowlege that we were ourselves deceived till we had recourse to the former volumes, and made the requisite comparison.

Having said thus much with regard to the "questionable shape" of the volume, we shall state the nature of its contents, which cannot be done better than in the author's own words:

'Part I. relates to the Rectilinear Motion of Bodies both by Impulse and Gravity; the Composition and Resolution of Motion, with the Solution of the Problem for resolving any Number of Forces into the direction of Three Axes at Right Angles to each other; the Method of finding the Center of Gravity of a Body or System of Bodies; the Motion of the common Center of Gravity of a System; the Collision of Hard and Elastic Bodies; and the Motion of Projectiles.

'The

'The first Three Lectures of Part II. contain the Doctrine of Equilibrium, as applied to the *Mechanical Powers;* the Fourth relates to the Pressure and Tension of Cords, including the Construction of the Funicular Polygon and Catenary. The last Lecture comprehends the common Theory for estimating the Strength, Stress, and Pressure of Beams.

'Part III. commences with the Motion of Bodies over Inclined Planes and Pulleys; and then proceeds to the Rotatory and Vibratory Motion of Bodies about a Fixed Axis; with the Investigation of the Centers of Gyration, Oscillation, Percussion, and Spontaneous Rotation of a Body or System of Bodies. In this part of the work will also be found some plain Theorems for ascertaining the Maximum Effects of Machinery.

'Part IV. contains Three Lectures upon Miscellaneous Subjects; such as, the Descent of Bodies over Pulleys by *Variable* Forces; the Vibration of Cords; the Oscillations of Bodies in Circular and Cycloidal Arcs; the Angular Motion of Bodies suspended from the Arms of a Straight Lever, &c. &c.; and concludes with the Method of finding the actual Time and Velocity of a Falling Body, on supposition that the Force of Gravity varies inversely as the square of the distance from the Earth's center.'

Such are the subjects which Mr. Bridge undertakes to illustrate: but we do not think that the manner in which he has performed his task is such as we might have expected from a professor of mathematics in the 19th century. We have before stated our opinion with regard to the introduction of diagrams in mathematical treatises, by which it will appear that we do not object to avail ourselves of their assistance whenever they have an obvious tendency to illustrate the subject under discussion: but we are persuaded that the eight figures, which the author has given to explain the laws of accelerated motion, are not only unnecessary but injurious. The same may be said with regard to the chapter of projectiles, which is made to occupy thirty-five pages, and to require thirteen complicated figures; whereas the whole of the matter that it contains, or at least all the results deduced from it, might have been investigated in four pages, with every necessary explanation for the most unexperienced reader;—and the same prolixity of detail and unnecessary display of diagrams pervade the whole performance.

This, however, we are sorry to say, is not the only fault which we have to allege against the present treatise; since it contains, with many ambiguities and imperfect demonstrations, some palpable inaccuracies. Thus at page 363. we have the following example:

'*What is the greatest weight which may be rolled down an oak plank* 20 *feet long,* 18 *inches broad,* 3 *inches thick, and inclined to*

the

the horizon in an ∠ of 60°, without breaking it; the weight of the plank not being taken into the consideration?

'To find the weight which this plank would sustain at its *middle* point when placed *horizontally*, we have $S : s :: \frac{B \times D^2}{L \times W} : \frac{b \times d^2}{l \times w} ::$ $\frac{18 \times 9}{20 \times W} : \frac{1 \times 1^2}{1 \times 600}$, $\therefore W = 4860 lbs.$; but the strength of a plane *inclined to the horizon in an ∠ of 60°*: its strength when placed *horizontally* :: $\overline{\text{rad.}}^3 : \overline{\text{cos. } 60°}^3$, $\therefore$ the *inclined* plank would sustain $8\,W$ or $38880 lbs.$ = about $17\frac{5}{14}$ tons at its middle point; consequently as the stress at this point is the *greatest*, a weight of $17\frac{5}{14}$ tons might be rolled down without breaking it.'

Now, the whole of this operation, as well as the preceding investigations on which it rests, is founded in error, and contrary both to theory and practice. That the stress on the plank varies as the cosine, we admit: but not that the strength increases as the square of the cosine. The latter is theoretically true when a beam is fixed in a wall at one end, so as to render the fracture vertical, but in no other case; and the inference which the author has drawn is therefore totally erroneous as applied to his example: as is also the investigation whence he has deduced it. It is obvious, in the case which he has supposed, that the fracture would take place perpendicularly to the face of the plank, the same as if it were placed horizontally; consequently, the strength is the same: it will therefore only bear double the weight in the former position that it will bear in the latter, and not eight times; and this double weight is not sustained from any increase of strength, but from a decrease of pressure or stress.

The most commendable part of this performance is the judicious selection of examples given at the end of each chapter, as exercises for the student; a plan which is not commonly adopted by authors on mechanics, although it is very advantageous in books intended for tuition. In the present case, they are certainly arranged in the most eligible manner, and are well calculated to answer the intended purpose of illustration. The problems beginning at page 20., vol. ii., on the descent of bodies under different circumstances, are also neatly demonstrated; and, though they are, as the author justly observes, 'rather matters of curiosity than of practical utility,' the simplicity of their demonstrations cannot fail of rendering them interesting to a mathematical student.

Mr. Bridge's *Mathematical Lectures* were noticed in our lxixth Vol., p. 204., Number for October 1812.

alluded; and, if that be not his aim, useless indeed are all his other endeavours; he is striving to raise a superstructure — on nothing: for by no other instrument can the foundations of knowlege be dug, than by that which is vigorously wielded by the power of attention. One great advantage of the older methods of instruction lay in this circumstance; that the boy, besides his other positive acquirements, *was taught to learn*, and must have daily felt the benefit of having that now neglected faculty of "attention" assiduously and strenuously brought into action. Something, no doubt, of compression and curtailment might judiciously be introduced into the older forms of school-education: but the modern rapidity and superficial conciseness, if *universally* adopted, (which we are far from fearing can be the case, while our great seminaries, with all their faults, adhere to the established and most necessary routine of elementary instruction,) would turn all our descendants into smatterers in Greek and Latin, and geologico-botanico-philosophico pretenders in the sciences; flying, indeed, like bees from flower to flower, but only brushing the farina from the leaves, without extracting the honey from the nectary.

Art. 16. *Caii Julii Cæsaris Opera Omnia; ad optimorum Exemplarium fidem recensita, Notulis sermone Anglicano exaratis illustrata, et Indice nominum propriorum uberrimo instructa. In Usum Scholæ Glasguensis. Studio* Joannis Dymock. 12mo. pp. 453. Ogles, Glasgow and London.

That it is a much more dignified office to become the editor of a classical author, than to trouble the world with original nonsense, is a proposition of sufficient simplicity; and yet, when we consider the multitude of useless books which are spawned every season by that prolific monster the Press, we should imagine that it was a truth little acknowleged by the scribbling inhabitants of Great Britain. We, however, in the discharge of our ceaseless office, are so constantly overwhelmed with floods of folly, and for the most part of home-produce, that a sensible and really valuable edition of an antient writer must receive a hearty welcome from us. Of the mode of commenting on school-classics in English, we highly approve; and indeed the reasons for such a plan seem very cogent. Boys, who would shrink in despair from a series of Latin notes, may be tempted not only by the facility but the novelty of English annotation, to gain a much more thorough acquaintance with the antiquities, the history, and the geography of their author, than they could otherwise have acquired. It is unnecessary, however, to dwell on this point at present: — the advantages of the plan seem daily to be more generally acknowleged.

This edition of Cæsar has many recommendations of the kind in question. The index almost supersedes the use of a classical dictionary; the explanatory notes are clear and serviceable; and the text is for the most part correctly printed from Oudendorp: with the exception, indeed, of some verbal alterations from other authorities. On the whole, we consider the editor as having rendered a service to the cause of classical instruction, by enabling the youthful student to advance with greater rapidity and certainty in the honourable pursuits of sound erudition.

Art.

Art. 17. *The Tyro's Guide;* a Series of Figures arranged in a new and simple Method, as a sure and extensive Ground-work for the Study of the fundamental Rules of Arithmetic as usually taught. Adapted to Schools, by Sarah Corbett, Superintendant of a School at Pendleton, near Manchester. Long 8vo. 1s. 6d. Darton and Co.

If we could conceive that it was absolutely necessary for a pupil to learn all the tables which Mrs. Corbett has inserted in her little book, we should certainly have nothing to object to her mode of arranging them: but we are persuaded that more than nine-tenths of them are useless. A few examples in numeration, addition, and subtraction, are all that are necessary for these three rules; and a multiplication-table, as far as 9 times 9, which is the proper limit according to our notation, (though it is commonly carried to 12 times 12,) is all the table that is necessary for a knowlege of what are here called 'the fundamental Rules of Arithmetic.'

Art. 18. *Florilegium Poeticum, ex Operibus Ovidii, Tibulli, Propertii, Martialis, &c. In Usum Tironum castissimâ Curâ selectum. Editio nova, recognita atque emendata. Reverendo* Georgio Whittaker, A.M. 12mo. Law and Co. 1814.

From this edition of the *Florilegium Poeticum*, many epigrams of Martial are excluded; no other novelties are announced in the short preface, which is a very bold composition, and begins with a sentence not remarkable either for elegance or modesty: '*In scholis*, ubi poetica compositio docetur, *hoc opusculo* nihil *potest esse acceptius*, nihil *utilius*.' Yet the collection forms, no doubt, an useful manual; and we think that it is improved by a greater caution in the selections. The composition of Latin verse is essential towards giving a boy a just perception of the beauties of classical poetry: but we are inclined to think that it is the *boy* only (with some few splendid exceptions of industry and genius) who can be properly initiated into the mysteries of prosody, be they as simple as they can be made. The more advanced in age may employ their time to so much greater advantage, that we should scarcely recommend the risk of leaving them ignorant of any portion of the sense of antient authors, for the sake of making them better acquainted with the elegancies of their poetical style. Let versification, however, be taught in all cases in which it can, with a reasonable prospect of success; always remembering that, as an accomplishment, it must not be suffered to entrench on more solid attainments; and not forgetting also the plain fact that, out of a hundred boys, the proportion is small indeed, in which the labour of the instructor in this department of classical education will not be entirely thrown away.

MATHEMATICS.

Art. 19. *Dissertations and Letters by Don Joseph Rodriguez, the Chevalier Delambre, Baron de Zach, Dr. Thomas Thomson, Dr. Olinthus Gregory, and others;* tending either to impugn or to defend the Trigonometrical Survey of England and Wales, &c. By Olinthus Gregory, LL.D. 8vo. 3s. Sherwood and Co. 1815.

We have offered our opinion, at some length, (Vol. lxxiii. p. 385.) on the merits of the question which gave rise to the Dissertations and Letters that form the substance of the present publication; and, as nothing which has been since advanced on the opposite side of the discussion has induced us to alter that opinion in any respect, we shall not retrace the steps of our argument in this place, but confine ourselves to a general report of the nature and contents of the pamphlet.

It is almost needless to state to our readers that Colonel Mudge, as director of the Military Survey of England, published in 1803, in the Philosophical Transactions, a continuation of the details of that important national undertaking; in the course of which, he had occasion to call the attention of mathematicians to a very singular anomaly observable in his determination of the length of the two parts of his terrestrial arc, as divided at Arbury-hill; from which it appeared that, contrary to the generally received hypothesis, the northern degrees were less than the more southern. 'Colonel Mudge, who was the first that was struck with this peculiarity, immediately communicated it by letter to his mathematical friends, requesting their attention to the subject, and suggesting the most probable cause of the anomaly;' and Dr. Hutton accordingly published some thoughts on this point in his Abridgment of the Philosophical Transactions in 1803. The question had also been examined by another able mathematician: but no satisfactory explanation was given. The circumstance might arise from our insular situation, or from local inequalities, or from other causes with the existence of which we were wholly unacquainted: but no one thought of attributing it to errors of observation, till the Memoir of Don Joseph Rodriguez appeared in the Philosophical Transactions for 1812. This supposition (for it is in fact nothing more, though it has been called a demonstration,) occasioned the several discussions collected together in the present pamphlet.

The first reply to Don Joseph was published by Dr. Gregory in Tilloch's Philosophical Magazine; in which he defended the accuracy of the operations, and demonstrated the fallacy of the Spanish mathematician's conclusions. Then appeared the remarks, re-printed in this pamphlet, which we considered it as our duty to make, in reviewing that part of the Transactions of the Royal Society which contained the memoir in question. (See Vol. lxxiii. M. R.) In the mean time, Delambre had noticed the paper of Don J. Rodriguez in the *Connaissance des Tems* for 1813, and had come to the same conclusion respecting the error of his deductions. Here the dispute rested, till Dr. Thomson renewed it by an allusion to it in a paper in his Annals of Philosophy, which brought forth a reply from Dr. Gregory; and this again produced an answer from Dr. Thomson, which was afterward noticed by Dr. G. in Tilloch's Magazine. Other letters were also interchanged between the two disputants, who seem to have grown warmer and warmer as they proceeded; which ultimately terminated by Dr. T. refusing to admit into his Journal any other communication from his opponent. This refusal, together with some harsh expressions employed in his last paper, induced Dr. Gregory

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to publish all that has passed on the subject in a connected order; adding only an introduction and conclusion, together with the reflections of Baron de Zach, as connected with this inquiry, and with certain observations of our late worthy Astronomer Royal. We are sorry to say that the controversy has not been conducted with that temper which it is so important to maintain in scientific discussions: but, in other respects, it has tended to produce a considerable mass of acute argumentation, which will be read with interest in its present connected form, as including all that has been said, or that probably can be said, on the cause of the singular anomaly in question; on which account we recommend the pamphlet to the perusal of our scientific readers, leaving them to draw their own conclusion. We shall only farther observe that Dr. Thomson appears to be too little versed in astronomical and mathematical knowlege, to manage a discussion of this kind to the best advantage; and that impetuous expressions and bold assertions badly supply the place of scientific demonstration.

Art. 20. *A Treatise upon Analytical Mechanics;* being the first Book of the *Méchanique Céleste* of P. S. La Place. Translated and elucidated with explanatory Notes. By the Rev. John Toplis, B.D. Fellow of Queen's College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 286. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We are under the painful necessity of admitting that, on the Continent, during the last half century, the mathematical sciences, and particularly the analytical branches of them, have been pursued with an ardour and constancy that insured success, while scarcely any improvement has been made in them in England; although this may be considered as the country of their birth. So far, indeed, are we behind our continental neighbours, that many of our medium-mathematicians would be unable to peruse a hundred pages of the important work of which we have here in part a translation, without some such aid as they will find in the notes to the present volume. The author of the original Treatise supposes his reader to be already acquainted with certain principles, and to possess a certain degree of analytical knowlege; which knowlege, however, is not to be obtained from any English author; and consequently the mere English reader, if the whole work were translated into our own language, would, for want of the requisite previous information, find himself as much at a loss as with the Greek text of Archimedes or Appollonius.

This being the real state of the case, we consider Mr. Toplis as intitled to approbation and thanks for the translation which he has here given to British mathematicians; and we hope that it may be the means of inducing some of our countrymen to enter on the study of the modern analysis, with its application to mechanics, and other physical subjects.

The notes which Mr. T. has given are certainly well calculated to facilitate the progress of his readers;—he seems to understand his author well, and to be acquainted with the difficulties and obstructions which his countrymen will experience. The student who has been accustomed to find every thing illustrated by diagrams, to see the acceleration of bodies explained by rectangles and triangles, the

motion of projectiles by parabolas and circles, and even time and velocity represented by right lines and curves, will undoubtedly find himself much perplexed at entering on a course of mechanics in its most extended signification, without a single figure to assist his bewildered imagination. Of this difficulty, Mr. Toplis has been aware; and he has, therefore, in a plate at the end of the volume, added such diagrams as he thought might be necessary for initiating his reader into this new method of treating mechanical subjects. The first book is unfortunately not the best specimen of the original performance, but the translator could give no other, since it must be understood before any farther progress can be made; and we have only to advise those who may be induced, through the medium of this translation, to commence the study of analytical mechanics, to persevere in their undertaking till they have overcome the difficulties which they will inevitably experience; assuring them that the facility, with which it will afterward enable them to pursue the subject, will amply compensate for the labour which they may bestow in acquiring a correct knowlege of the principles.

With regard to the translation itself, we are sorry that it is not in our power to give the most favourable account, in as far as we have noticed a variety of singular, and certainly some inaccurate expressions. The word *extract* is used throughout in a different sense from that in which it is employed by our mathematicians; 'to extract one of the unknown quantities out of an equation' is scarcely intelligible to an English reader. We doubt also the propriety of rendering the French *astre* generally by *star*; the former, as employed by French authors, being much more comprehensive than our word *star*, which is never used either for the sun or a planet, or a comet, whereas the French *astre* is applied indifferently to any of the heavenly bodies; and Mr. Toplis uses star in the same general sense. *Differentiating*, *equalled to*, and a few other similar peculiarities of expression that we might mention, may also be said to be scarcely English. These, however, though we consider it as our duty to mention them, are but trifling blemishes; which are far over-balanced by the accuracy of the printing and the value of the notes, to which latter the translator seems to have directed most of his attention. On the whole, therefore, Mr. Toplis has rendered an essential service to English students, by enabling them to commence the study of one of the most important works that any age or country ever produced, if we except the "*Principia*" of our illustrious Newton; and we sincerely hope that it may meet with the encouragement which it deserves, though we must add that in this respect our doubts exceed our hopes. A mathematical publication, above the level of school-practitioners, finds little encouragement in this country; to enable a book to sell, it must be trifling; it must reduce all rules to mere mechanical operations; it must in fact be suited to the taste of *solvers of problems*, and not to *investigators*: — we have more of the former class, and fewer of the latter, than any empire in Europe. The consequence is that, while we stand superior to all countries in every other science that is considered as honourable to nations, we are as decidedly inferior in mathematics, and particularly in that branch of

of them which was first planted in England. Surely, among the numerous associations so laudably instituted in our metropolis for the encouragement of the arts and sciences, some plan might be adopted for the promotion of the mathematics; a science which yields to none in point of utility, and which ranks pre-eminently above all others in the sublimity and grandeur of the subjects that fall within the range of its investigations.

POETRY AND THE DRAMA.

Art. 21. *The Magpie;* or the Maid of Palaiseau. A Melo-dramatic Romance, in Three Acts, performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. 8vo. 2s. Murray.

By the aid of action and scenery, this drama has become a favourite *on the boards*, to use the technical phrase, but as a literary composition it is a trifle; lively, however, and pleasing. It is apparently adopted from the French.

Art. 22. *Wellington's Triumph:* or, the Battle of Waterloo. By William Thomas Fitzgerald, Esq. 8vo. pp. 16. Hatchard.

On former occasions, Mr. F. has recorded his hatred and detestation of Bonaparte, and here rejoices that his reign is past; congratulating Britain that it has fallen to her share to crush the tyrant's power. He admits that such a victory as that of Waterloo deserves 'a Homer's lyre:' but this not being at hand, he employs an inferior instrument. Haste and negligence are apparent in this little poem, yet the battle is not unfaithfully delineated in the following stanzas:

'The tyrant gathers in his train
Veterans releas'd from Russia, Spain,
And those from Albion's shore;
Exhausting France, he drains the land,
And all her strength at his command,
He drags to war once more!

'With rapid march he braves the field,
And hopes to make Britannia yield,
Ere Russia's powers appear;
For could he once on England tread,
The crown were fixed upon his head,
Beyond all mortal fear!

'With courage cool the Britons stand,
Obedient to the high command,
That bids them wait the fight;
The battle's thunder roars in vain,—
Their adamantine ranks remain,
An awful, glorious sight!

'Though death in every shape appear,
From 'whelming cannon, sword and spear,
And bullets wrapt in flame!

Closing their ranks, as comrades fall,
Their native valour forms a wall,
Immoveably the same.

'In vain the Cuirassiers advance,
The Tyrant's boast, the pride of France!
To break their hollow square;
Ten times they charge, ten times retire;
Again they face the British fire,
And perish in despair.

'New masses on their squares descend,
These also charge — to meet their end;
And countless warriors fall;
Horses and horsemen strew the plain,
And cannon mingled with the slain —
One fate involves them all!"

In the following line,

'With this *solace* — it is not shed in vain,'

we meet with a false quantity; and in this couplet,

"'Then ages hence," their glory to renew
The British youth shall talk of Waterloo,'

we have too much of the ballad tameness.

Mr. F. thinks with many others that Napoleon should have perished on the field of battle, and not have fled to be the first reporter of his own defeat; — that then

'In death one trophy had adorn'd his head,
A tyrant living, but a hero dead.'

Bonaparte, however, was not ambitious of such a trophy; thinking perhaps with Solomon, that "a living dog is better than a dead lion;" or with Hudibras, that

"He who fights and runs away
May live to fight another day:
But he who is in battle slain
Can never rise to fight again."

Art. 23. *Paddy Hew*; a Poem, from the Brain of Timothy Tarpaulin. Whistled by a Sea Lark. Crown 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Whittingham and Arliss. 1815.

This foolish title-page has a caricature of equal vulgarity fronting it. Like the "Lay of the Scottish Fiddle,"* it professes to be a naval satire, forsooth: but, unlike that trifle, it presents not a single passage of the slightest merit of any kind whatever. It is, besides, as low in every respect as that wretched parody of a noble poem by Mr. Scott, intitled *Jokeby*, which some time since fell

* See our Number for June last, p. 143.

under

under our just censure. (Vol. lxxi. p. 318.) How a person of the least education can be induced to abuse the press by such unworthy effusions, we are at a loss to conceive; — and we really think that any one who would waste half-a-guinea, (the exorbitant price of this trash,) on so degrading a purchase, must be lost to more senses than one. — "*Nulli fas casto sceleratum incedere limen.*"

Art. 24. *The Lay of the Poor Fiddler*, a Parody on "The Lay of the last Minstrel," with Notes and Illustrations. By an Admirer of Walter Scott. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1814.

We have already had occasion to notice several of these burlesque productions, of different degrees of merit, some pointed and spirited, some tame and trivial, others absurd and puerile. Of the intermediate description, is "the Lay" before us: not wholly nonsensical, but dry and *jejune*; and, considered as a satirical composition, it wants that keen edge, which should form its whole essence and characteristic. It is moreover rather a parody on words than a ludicrous imitation of style; so that, with a story spiritless in itself, and sometimes vulgarly related, it is little calculated to excite general interest, or to be productive of much amusement. We find no playfulness, no brilliancy, no happy and close imitation, no real and genuine wit: all is cold and comfortless, feeble, straggling, and uncompressed: labouring to be something, and yet turning out nothing; striving to produce a healthy vigorous offspring, yet bringing forth at last, with pain and anguish, a still-born deformity. We forbear, for the sake of all parties, from any more minute delineation: but, since we have found it impossible to confer a flattering testimony on the work, it is but justice to the author to add that it is the production of a juvenile muse, and was gloriously achieved in a very limited space of time.

Art. 25. *The Duel*, a Satirical Poem, in Four Cantos, with other Poems. By L. O. Shaw. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1815.

"Indecency does not destroy wit," said Horace Walpole: but he wisely added, "nor does it confer wit." Assuredly, the former quality has sometimes been largely accompanied by the latter; but, in most cases, it is fortunately very far separated from its dangerous companion. Among other examples of their disunion, the present little volume has too much right to be placed. We shall not in course stain our pages by transcribing any proofs of this assertion, but merely state that pruriency frequently occurs in it; and that for specimens of swearing, and every other description of vulgar language, we may appeal to the whole publication.

Art. 26. *Osman*, a Turkish Tale. 8vo. pp. 48. 3s. Hamilton. 1815.

'Tis Eve, and o'er fair Helle's winding SPRAY
Fast sheds the Delphic god his parting ray;
And in those tides which unregarded lave
His own domain, prepares his golden grave.'

This idea, says the author, has been unintentionally *taken* from Moore; and if he had added that a great part of the volume had been *suggested* by Lord Byron, he would not have been far from the truth. The plagiarism is manifest throughout; and the excuse about invention and memory in the commencement will scarcely avail. The very dashes of the noble lord, his unmeaning substitutes for punctuation, are copied in every page:

> 'A grim convulsive laugh then shook his frame —
> His heart was still — alone remains his name —
> His soul hath fled — the where I may not tell —
> It is enough to say — there is an hell.'

As something of promise occurs in several passages of this little publication, and as we have heard that the author is merely a youth, we would admonish him to think and feel for himself with more independence and originality, should he ever appear again as a candidate for literary fame: but let him not rashly do this; let him at all events wait for some years to come, and store his mind with much more knowlege than he can hitherto have obtained, before he crosses the dangerous Rubicon of the Press on a second occasion.

NOVELS.

Art. 27. *The Victim of Intolerance;* or the Hermit of Killarney. A Catholic Tale. By Robert Torrens, Major in the Royal Marines. 12mo. 4 Vols. 20s. Boards. Gale and Co. 1814.

A novel only tolerably well conceived and tolerably well written, to which a striking moral is appended, and which is calculated to inculcate an important practical principle, is intitled to a favourable reception by us, who are warmly solicitous to have the useful blended with the pleasant, and to see fiction subservient to truth, virtue, and social blessings. Major Torrens, then, comes into our court under favourable auspices; and his 'Catholic Tale,' seasonably addressed to the people of Ireland for the very laudable purpose of producing 'liberality of sentiment on the one hand, and moderation and tranquillity on the other,' appeals so forcibly to our hearts, that we have not one frown on our brow that could possibly turn against him. Had we, indeed, entered without prepossession on the reading of this novel, the result would have been the same; since it displays sound judgment as well as imagination, and the impressions which it leaves on the mind are connected with the happiness of states. 'The Victim of Intolerance' is in fact a novel of no ordinary character. With very impassioned scenes, it combines the most interesting discussions, which are ably conducted, and which prove the writer to be a man of reading and deep reflection. With a glow of eloquence, the cause of the Catholics is advocated; and in the history of O'Connor, the hero of the tale, the miserable consequences of exclusion are most pathetically displayed. The narrative is perhaps too much spun-out, some incidents might have been omitted, and some of the argumentative parts abridged: but the whole is creditable to Major Torrens as a writer, and cannot fail of being extremely acceptable

table to the Catholic population of Ireland, whose situation and feelings are painted to the life.

Art. 28. *The Observant Pedestrian mounted;* or a Donkey Tour to Brighton, a Comic Sentimental Novel. By the Author of "The Mystic Cottager," "Observant Pedestrian," &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 16s. 6d. Boards. Simpkin and Marshall. 1815.

If any reader of this work be sufficiently good-humoured to forgive a large proportion of nonsense, he will be amused by the performance, in which the comic parts are the best, and some of the chapters and dialogues are really laughable. The author is certainly an 'observant' traveller, and has described so minutely the inns and dinners which he found on the road to Brighton, that we have no doubt of his having taken the journey, and little question of his having tasted the repasts. He also imitates successfully the language and expressions of the Sussex peasantry: but more story and connection are necessary to insure attention during the perusal of three volumes; and the humour is not only of a low and puerile cast, but some old jokes and stories are introduced: for instance, that of the two drivers and the newspaper, Vol. iii. p. 26. The writer also employs many incorrect expressions; such as, Vol. i. p. 314., '*techey temper*:' Vol. iii. p. 85., 'She trottered across the Steine;' and p. 273., 'necessity would compel me to act *economical*:' — Vol. ii., p. 224., 'The maîtresse d'hôtel whose *perspicuity* this action had not escaped;' and in Vol. ii. p. 16., the pedestrian reproves a maid-servant for saying *she sawed*, by desiring her 'not to speak so *improper*.'

Art. 29. *Warwick Castle.* An Historical Novel. By Miss Prickett. 12mo. 3 Vols. 11. 1s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1815.

Here may be found a new recipe for an historical novel, since the characters in this tale are all fictitious: but they visit Warwick Castle, and therefore the second volume is entirely filled with *historical* notices concerning the persons whose portraits are to be seen in that fine antient residence. We must observe, *en passant*, that the account given of *Ignatius Loyola* is unduly favourable: (vide pp. 125, 126, &c.) but we imagine that the new species of composition thus introduced by Miss Prickett will not find many imitators, because the present novel is so dull that it will be

"To all an example, to no one a pattern."

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 30. תורה נביאים וכתובים *Biblia Hebraica; secundum ultimam Editionem Jos. Athiæ, a Johanne Leusden, denuo recognitam, recensita, atque ad Masoram, et Correctiones Bombergi, Plantini, aliorumque Editiones, exquisite ornata, variisque Notis illustrata ab Everardo Van der Hooght,* V.D.M. *Editio nova, recognita et emendata, à* Josepho Samuele C. F. Frey. — *Partes* IV. V. VI. VII. VIII. 8vo. Gale and Co.

Our readers will see, by turning to a former Number of our Journal, (Vol. lxix. N. S. p. 214.) that we have already detailed the

the substance of Mr. Frey's prospectus of this work. We had then received only three numbers: but five more have since come to hand; and we have hitherto waited for the remainder, in hopes of being able to announce the completion of the undertaking. Without farther delay, however, we shall now mention the five numbers before us, which contain the portion of the O. T. that is included between Joshua, chap. vii. and Hosea, chap. ii.; so that three or four numbers more will finish the whole.

Though this Hebrew Bible is meant to be an *exact fac-simile* of that of Van der Hooght, yet, on comparing them together, we find that this is not precisely the case. The type, though beautiful, is not (we think) *quite* so square and bold as that of Van der Hooght. In the preface to the Amsterdam edition, of which this is said to be a copy, an apology is made for giving a larger page than that of Athias, which it professes to follow: but Mr. Frey has made his page longer than that of Van der Hooght, at the same time that he has contracted its width, without informing us of this alteration. He has given, indeed, in the sixth number, an engraved title-page which exactly corresponds with that of its proto-type, only subjoining at the bottom, *A Josepho Samuele C. F. Frey:* but he has not copied, as he ought to have done, the second title, containing the wood-vignette, and the names of the editors of Van der Hooght's Bible, viz. *Boom, Waesberge, Goethals, Borstius, Wolters, Halma, Van de Water,* and *Broedelet,* with the year in which it was printed (ciɔ ɔɔ ccv). On turning, also, to the prefatory matter, we find that what occupies only 48 pages in the original edition is spread over 72 pages by Mr. Frey; and that he has omitted the catch-word בראשית at the bottom of the last page which shews that the preface is concluded, and that the next page commences with the Hebrew sacred text. These are trifles: but, in professed *fac-similes,* which are ushered to the notice of the public with professions of the greatest attentions to exactness and accuracy, even trifles should not be disregarded. Every page of the new edition ought, as in a glass, to reflect the old. Indeed, for the most part, we find this to be the case. If at the end of the book of Exodus, &c. we have not the precise wooden vignette which is given in the Amsterdam edition, we recognize a decent substitute; the title-page (engraved in wood) of the anterior Prophets which follow the Pentateuch is tolerably copied from Van der Hooght, with the motto from Ps. cxviii. 20. in Hebrew without points: but, instead of באמשטירדם (*Amstelodami*) we have בלאנדן (*Londini*); and the same remark we may apply to the title-pages of the posterior Prophets.

Our time is too much occupied, and our eyes are too old, to enable us to make a perfect collation of the edition of Mr. Frey with that of its professed exemplar: but we wish that some Hebrew scholar, who has more leisure than we can command, (and an ample stock of patience into the bargain,) would ascertain how far this London edition is intitled to the full praise of accuracy to which it aspires. We hope that it contains no material errors: but we must observe that we have discovered, in the partial survey which we have taken, that the vowel-points and accents are not in all cases so distinctly exhibited as

in Van der Hooght's edition. As an instance, we shall specify the word יְהוָה in the fifth line from the bottom of p. 20. In Van der Hooght, the accent over the ה is placed very distinctly from the dot Cholem: but in Mr. Frey's edition they are run together, resembling an inverted Kybbutz. Perhaps this and similar failures of distinctness in those very delicate gentry, the vowel-points and accents, may be attributed to the proofs being corrected after a reader of the copy, and not submitted to the eye, which would detect the smallest aberration from the original.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 31. *An Extract from a Journal, kept on board H. M. S. Bellerophon, Captain F. L. Maitland,* from July 15. to August 7th 1815, being the Period during which Napoleon Buonaparte was on board that Ship. By Lieutenant John Bowerbank, R. N. late of the Bellerophon. With an Appendix of official and other Documents. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons, &c.

The daily newspapers supplied the public with an ample report of the proceedings relative to Napoleon during his stay on board of the Bellerophon, and of his general conduct and demeanour. We have, in consequence, been rather disappointed in our expectation of finding many new particulars in the Journal before us: but it is satisfactory to receive an account from a respectable and avowed source, and to observe the general correspondence of this detail with the circumstances stated in the papers. Still, however, we could select from this little work various anecdotes which would interest our readers, and probably be new to some of them: but we will not plunder the Lieutenant's locker, rather recommending its contents at large to the notice of our readers.

Art. 32. *An Account of the Battle of Waterloo,* 18th June 1815, &c. &c. By a British Officer on the Staff. With an Appendix, containing the British, French, Prussian, and Spanish official Details of that memorable Engagement. 8vo. 6s. Ridgway.

This account is published as the copy of a letter written by an officer well qualified to describe the celebrated battle of Waterloo with accuracy and fidelity, and which was considered as too interesting to be thrown aside, since it would 'assist in gratifying present curiosity, in supplying materials for the future historian, and in the relief of the sufferers by the battle.' On these accounts we are glad to receive it, and to announce it to the public. A coloured engraved sketch of the scene of action and the position of the armies is prefixed.

Art. 33. *Loisirs de Napoléon Buonaparte; depuis son Enfance jusqu'à l'Epoque de son Mariage avec L'Archiduchesse Marie Louise. Ecrits par lui-même, pendant son Sejour dans l'Isle d'Elbe.* 12mo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1815. Reprinted in London for Colburn. Price 10s.

Two questions occur relative to this publication. Is it authentic? If it be, what is it worth?—As to the first, we have no doubt that it is a forgery;—as to the second, we are equally clear that it is worthless, even if it were true. Considered as a fiction, the perusal of it can yield nothing

nothing but contamination; and if it were *véritable*, to that contamination could be added no other knowlege than that Bonaparte was alike insatiable in his love of conquest over women and over states, and equally without scruple in the mode of gratifying it. The preface of the anonymous editor declares that he received the MS. from the Duke of ——, to whom it was given by Napoleon himself. What satisfactory authority! — Paris unfortunately abounds with meretricious writers and readers, and by and for these classes we apprehend the present volumes to have been composed. The re-print of them in London is without some of the most prurient details of the original, but still requires to be placed in the list of prohibited works.

Art. 34. *Memorial on behalf of the Native Irish*, with a View to their Improvement in Moral and Religious Knowlege, through the Medium of their own Language. 8vo. pp. 80. 2s. 6d. Gale and Co. 1815.

To this humane, interesting, and well argued Memorial, the attention of our rulers ought to be directed; and for the pains which the author (the introduction is subscribed *Christopher Anderson*, Edinburgh,) has taken to collect the fullest information on this subject, and to reply to all objections, Government and the public owe him thanks. It has been amply proved by experience, that the language of a people cannot easily be exterminated; and that the only effectual way of diffusing moral and religious knowlege is to employ the native tongue as the vehicle. On this principle, it is here contended that those who are termed the native Irish (including a population of nearly two millions) can never be instructed to any serious purpose, but through the medium of their vernacular tongue; and, in reply to the objection that "many of these people understand the English language," it is sensibly remarked:

'As to the assertion that these people at present *understand* the English language, it must be received with very considerable limitations. The truth is, that the great majority do not, and even with regard to those who do, *to what extent* are they acquainted with the English language? Every language, let it be observed, has its different departments — commercial, political, and religious. Does it therefore follow that because a native Irishman can buy and sell, or because an Irish waiter, at an inn in the country, can reply to a traveller in English, that he can reason in this language, or follow the argument and address of moral and religious discourse? By no means. The Irish is still the language of his heart, and even of the best part of his understanding. In it, he still continues to express his joy or grief; for this is the language which is associated with his earliest recollections. In it, his mother hushed him to rest in the days of infancy; and in youth, if he had an ear for music, it was charmed with the numbers of "*Erin go brah!*"'

The statement here given of the means which have been employed, at various periods, for instructing the native Irish by means of the press, and particularly by the translation of the Scriptures into Irish, their printing, and circulation, is curious and amusing; and we cannot help lamenting, with the author, that the first men who

engaged in these truly benevolent undertakings became either the victims of persecution or the objects of neglect:

——— "They lived unknown,
Till persecution dragg'd them into fame,
And chas'd them up to heaven. Their ashes flew
—— No marble tells us whither. With their names
No bard embalms and sanctifies his song;
And history, so warm on meaner themes,
Is cold on this."

Yet, though these noble-minded individuals received neither present honour nor posthumous fame, their labours are highly beneficial to mankind; and it is gratifying to trace their advancement and final result. From the first attempt at an Irish version of the Scriptures, by Richard Fitzralph, or Fitzrauf, (the Wickliffe of Ireland,) who flourished about the middle of the fourteenth century, down to the recent exertions of the Bible-Society, the history of the progress of translating and of printing the Scriptures with *Irish* types is displayed; and we learn from it that the work met with such various obstructions and delays, that much still requires to be done. 'Several generations of our countrymen (observes the memorialist) have gone down to the grave without having once seen the Scriptures, and without having been taught even to read their own language.'—On the present state of the Irish language, circumstantial evidence is given. 'In the *hundred* small inhabited islands which surround Ireland, as well as on a considerable portion of the main land, the vernacular tongue is so general that the common people are incapable of understanding a continued discourse in English, and cannot receive moral and religious instruction through this medium. Surely this case should not be overlooked.—It is a point here much maintained, that the most effectual means of promoting the study of the English language among the native Irish would be the establishment of schools for instructing them in their own vernacular tongue: but, without laying any stress on this point, it is sufficient to know that the surest and most facile access to the minds of the common people of any country is by employing their most familiar terms as the vehicle of instruction; while, by presenting knowlege in a dialect which must be previously learned before one idea can be conveyed, we disgust the people whom we pretend to aid, and leave ignorance in the full possession of her antient domain. Dr. Johnson's decision on this subject cannot be too often quoted, nor too fully considered:

"Let it be remembered, that the efficacy of ignorance has long been tried, and has not produced the consequence expected. Let knowlege, therefore, take its turn, and let the patrons of privation stand awhile aside, and admit the operation of positive principles."

Having endeavoured to obviate every objection as to the impolicy of a regular attempt to instruct the native Irish by the simple use of their own dialect, the memorialist proceeds to explain the plan which he would recommend for adoption. It consists in opening Irish circulating schools, similar to those that are established in Wales with the same intention, for the sole and express purpose of teaching the

Irish

Irish to read their native language. The encouragements to proceed are also detailed; and the author concludes with stating that a Society, formed in London, has resolved unanimously on carrying this plan into immediate effect. Subscriptions are therefore solicited, towards defraying the expence of this truly noble and philanthropic undertaking: but the plan here so ably detailed and recommended seems to call for the patronage of Government, and ought not to be left to the comparatively feeble efforts of a society supported by subscription.

Art. 35. *A brief Account of the Jesuits,* with Historical Proofs in Support of it, tending to establish the Danger of the Revival of the Order to the World at large, and to the United Kingdom in particular. 8vo. pp. 56. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1815.

As the present Pope, by a Bull expressly issued for that purpose, has revived the order of Jesuits, it is requisite for the states of Europe, and in particular the protestant states, to recollect the nature, constitution, and history of this once active fraternity, that they may be on their guard against its future projects and operations. The author of the summary before us has furnished sufficient matter to create alarm on this head, and the evidence which he has produced ought not to be slighted: we trust that it will not.

He begins with calling the attention of parliament to this subject, because he thinks that the revival of this order, so deservedly proscribed and at last suppressed, is full of danger to the religious and political liberties of this nation. A short notice is then given of the original plan of the founder of this order, (Ignatius Loyola,) of the motive which induced Paul III. in 1540 to sanction it, and of the singular constitution and policy by which its members were incorporated. It is remarked that the system, which rendered the Jesuits so formidable, was perfected by Lainez and Aquaviva, the two Generals of the order who succeeded Loyola, and were far superior to their master in abilities and in the science of government. Our attention is also drawn to the peculiar character of this order, and to the circumstances in which its members were placed:

'The primary object of almost all the monastic orders is to separate men from the world, and from any concern in its affairs. In the solitude and silence of the cloister, the monk is called to work out his own salvation by extraordinary acts of mortification and piety. He is dead to the world, and ought not to mingle in its transactions. He can be of no benefit to mankind, but by his example and prayers. On the contrary, the Jesuits are taught to consider themselves as formed for action. They are chosen soldiers, bound to exert themselves continually in the sight of God, and of the Pope, his vicar on earth. Whatever tends to instruct the ignorant, whatever can be of use to reclaim or oppose the enemies of the holy see, is their proper object. That they may have full leisure for this active service, they are totally exempted from those functions the performance of which is the chief business of other monks. They appear in no processions; they practise no rigorous austerities; they do not consume one-half of their time in the repetition of tedious offices; but they are required to attend to all the transactions of the world on account of the influence

fluence which these may have upon the success of the Catholic religion; they are directed to study the dispositions of persons in high rank, and to cultivate their friendship: and by the very constitution as well as genius of the order, a spirit of action and intrigue is infused into all its members.' —

'There is not in the annals of mankind any example of such a perfect despotism exercised, not over monks shut up in the cells of a convent, but over men dispersed among all the nations of the earth.'—

'The pernicious effects of the spirit and constitution of this order rendered it early obnoxious to some of the principal powers in Europe, and gradually brought on its downfall. The Emperor Charles V. saw it expedient to check its progress in his dominions; it was expelled in England by the proclamation of James I. in 1604; in Venice, in 1606; in Portugal, in 1759; in France, in 1764; in Spain and Sicily, in 1767; and totally suppressed and abolished by Pope Clement XIV. in 1773.'

This view of the Society of Jesuits is sufficient to direct governments to the circumstance of its re-establishment; while the principles by which its members were actuated, together with the history of its operations, are calculated to excite serious apprehensions. The design of this writer is to prove that its existence is fatal to all civil and ecclesiastial authority, and that 'one of its principal objects is to direct and aid the operations of *the Inquisition* where it exists, and to exercise its several functions *secretly* in countries where it is not established.' It is represented as acting on the principle that 'the end sanctifies the means, and that it is lawful to do evil that good may come.'

Of the miseries arising from the intrigues and persecuting spirit of the Jesuits, a long enumeration is made: but, though it may be supposed that some of these charges are well founded, it may also be presumed that this compiler, who is not infected with what he terms 'the *mania* of religious liberality,' and is evidently adverse to the Catholic cause, has overcharged the picture. We should think that the *Secreta Monita*, or secret instructions of the order, here displayed, cannot be genuine; nor is it necessary to prove their authenticity, in order to make a strong case against the Jesuits. It should seem that the idea entertained by the present Pope is that this order is peculiarly fitted to support and extend the Catholic religion; and therefore we find that immediately on its restoration he sent four Jesuits into Ireland. Being aware of the dangerous proceedings of this enterprizing fraternity, and knowing also that the head of the Catholic church has again put them in full activity, it behoves us Protestants to be *on the alert*, and to take especial care that the future history of the Jesuits does not resemble the past.

Mr. Dallas has lately published a volume in reply to this tract, which we shall speedily notice.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 36. Preached before the Members of a "Friendly Society;" at their Annual General Meeting, held at Lechlade, in the County of Gloucester, May 30. 1814. By L. Blakeney, A.M. Curate of Lechlade. 4to. 2s. Printed at Cirencester.

Art.

Art. 37. Preached at the Annual Visitation at Dursley, May 24. 1815, before the Worshipful and Reverend Thomas Rudge, B. D. Archdeacon of Gloucester, and the Reverend the Clergy of the Deanery of Dursley. By the Rev. L. Blakeney, A.M. Curate and Lecturer of Dursley. 4to. 2s. Printed at Cirencester.

Art. 38. *A Farewell Sermon;* or parting Address to his Parishioners. By the Rev. L. Blakeney, A.M. 4to. 2s. Printed at Cirencester. 1815.

Mr. Blakeney presents himself before the public in the pompous quarto form, thus imitating the great dignitaries of the church; when we should think that the decent octavo would have looked more modest, and might have saved at least fifty per cent. to his purchasers. We make this remark for the purpose of keeping down the price in the sermon-market; since very few single sermons ought to be sold for more than a shilling. None of the three now before us can be estimated at a higher price; and, had they been printed in octavo, as they ought to have been, no more would have been required for them. The first is little else than a commentary on St. Paul's advice given in 1 Thess. v. 14, 15. The second contains an exhortation to Mr. B.'s brethren the clergy, from 2 Tim. ii. 23—25. in which the preacher, while he recommends the adoption of the apostle's precept "to avoid foolish and unlearned questions," earnestly cautions them against being accessaries to pusillanimity and supineness, to the growth of schism, irreligion, and impiety. With zeal for the truth, he would have moderation to be blended, and asperity and bitterness avoided. Yet, when he comes to apply these mild rules, he indulges in some epithets which are rather at variance with them: but, against the adversaries of the church, a little warmth, in spite of St. Paul, must be allowed. The clergy are here reminded of the importance of their *example*. In the farewell-sermon, (without a date, and we believe the second which the preacher has published,) we are presented with a paraphrase on 2 Cor. xiii. 11. and with a grateful, affectionate, and affecting adieu to his flock.—As compositions, these discourses are neither above nor below par; so that the preacher can neither gain nor lose any credit by their publication.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The multifarious communications respecting the American question have duly reached us: but the absence of an associate has precluded us from attending to them in this Number, and we fear that it may have the same effect in the next month; though we shall endeavour to avoid this undesirable delay. Will the writer confide to us his address?

H. M's second note is received: but the matter in question is more oppressed with difficulties than he supposes. We shall not, however, lose sight of it.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. LXXVII. of the Review was published with our last Number.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For NOVEMBER, 1815.

ART. I. *Poems* by William Wordsworth; including Lyrical Ballads, and the Miscellaneous Pieces of the Author. With additional Poems, a new Preface, and a Supplementary Essay. 2 Vols. 8vo. 11. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

AFTER all that the public has known of the productions of Mr. Wordsworth, and all that we have said concerning them, it is scarcely necessary for us now to observe that the sum and substance of his poetical character may be comprehensively described under one quality; viz. a strong admiration of the beauties of external nature. Accustomed to visit rocks and mountains rather than cities or market-towns, and cherishing a strict intimacy with the plants and flowers of his neighbourhood while he has maintained, comparatively, but little converse with men and women, he has contracted such habits of composition as were the natural consequence of so recluse and peculiar a mode of life. This simple explanation of a series of phænomena intitled Poems, and scientifically distributed by the author into classes of 'Imagination,' 'Fancy,' 'Affections,' 'Sentiment and Reflection,' &c. &c. will probably give little satisfaction to that author himself, or to his few though ardent votaries: but the "*raison suffisante*" for *all* Mr. Wordsworth's writings is nevertheless to be found in his "local habitation;" where he has long been giving "a name to airy nothings," and, with much, very much indeed, of the real genius of a poet, has been wasting that genius on unworthy though innocent subjects, and displaying every variety of a whimsical and inveterately perverted taste which it is possible to conceive.

In a preface to the 'Poems' before us, which is not remarkable for clearness of idea nor for humility of tone, a fresh attempt is made to give that air of invention and novelty to Mr. W.'s writings which it seems to be his main object to claim. He wishes to be the founder of a school or system in poetry; and he endeavours to refer all his chance-effusions, all his walking thoughts, suggested by the stocks and stones or the old men and children that he encounters, to some particular class of

to the fancy; but either the materials evoked and combined are different; or they are brought together under a different law, and for a different purpose. Fancy does not require that the materials which she makes use of should be susceptible of change in their constitution, from her touch; and, where they admit of modification, it is enough for her purpose if it be slight, limited, and evanescent. Directly the reverse of these, are the desires and demands of the Imagination. She recoils from every thing but the plastic, the pliant, and the indefinite. She leaves it to Fancy to describe Queen Mab as coming,

> "In shape no bigger than an agate stone
> On the fore-finger of an alderman."

Having to speak of stature, she does not tell you that her gigantic angel was as tall as Pompey's pillar; much less that he was twelve cubits, or twelve hundred cubits high; or that his dimensions equalled those of Teneriffe or Atlas;—because these, and if they were a million times as high, it would be the same, are bounded: the expression is, "His stature reached the sky!" the illimitable firmament!—When the Imagination frames a comparison, if it does not strike on the first presentation, a sense of the truth of the likeness, from the moment that it is perceived, grows—and continues to grow—upon the mind; the resemblance depending less upon outline of form and feature than upon expression and effect, less upon casual and outstanding, than upon inherent and internal, properties:—moreover, the images invariably modify each other.—The law under which the processes of Fancy are carried on is as capricious as the accidents of things, and the effects are surprizing, playful, ludicrous, amusing, tender, or pathetic, as the objects happen to be appositely produced or fortunately combined. Fancy depends upon the rapidity and profusion with which she scatters her thoughts and images, trusting that their number, and the felicity with which they are linked together, will make amends for the want of individual value: or she prides herself upon the curious subtilty and the successful elaboration with which she can detect their lurking affinities. If she can win you over to her purpose, and impart to you her feelings, she cares not how unstable or transitory may be her influence, knowing that it will not be out of her power to resume it upon an apt occasion. But the Imagination is conscious of an indestructible dominion;—the soul may fall away from it, not being able to sustain its grandeur, but if once felt and acknowledged, by no act of any other faculty of the mind can it be relaxed, impaired, or diminished.—Fancy is given to quicken and to beguile the temporal part of our nature, Imagination to incite and to support the eternal.—Yet is it not the less true that Fancy, as she is an active, is also, under her own laws and in her own spirit, a creative faculty. In what manner Fancy ambitiously aims at a rivalship with the Imagination, and Imagination stoops to work with the materials of Fancy, might be illustrated from the compositions of all eloquent writers, whether in prose or verse; and chiefly from those of our own country."

To this ingenious but far from sound passage, we think, most readers will find something to object; although it contains

tains much to amuse and even a certain portion of instruction. The truth appears to be that, amid all his seemingly accurate distinctions, Mr. Wordsworth has often capriciously attributed to one power that which belongs by equal right to another, and has missed the broad and plain distinction of Professor Stewart, (see his "Elements," pp. 284, 285.) that the office of Fancy is to collect materials for the Imagination. Such, however, are Mr. Wordsworth's metaphysics*: but, on referring to his Supplementary Essay, we find still more ample reason to admire the clearness and cogency of argument by which he establishes his own claim to originality, (for, like Achilles in the Iliad, he is seldom out of the author's sight,) and proves the principal point which he has in view; namely, that all great poets except Thompson have been neglected at their first appearance; *ergo*, that the time is yet to come at which Mr. Wordsworth's own fame will attain its maturity. This prophecy is not merely implied, it is directly and plainly delivered by the prophet himself, of himself, and for his own benefit. "*Vanitas vanitatum, omnia vanitas!*" Well, indeed, might the wise man, or the most ordinary of mortal sages, thus exclaim, when perusing some of Mr. W.'s presages of his own immortality. Let our readers digest that which we are about to quote, and with which we shall be contented as an example of the author's prose-performances, criticisms, or good auspices relating to his own future support from the *people*; — the *people*, whom he emphatically separates from the *public*; meaning, we presume, those who are hereafter to be taught to read, the *non erudiendum vulgus*, the unborn children of Joseph Lancaster, as contradistinguished from the progeny of the universities or the literary swarm of the metropolis now in existence.

Mr. W. takes a brief and rapid notice of some of the leading English poets, the temporary neglect of whose writings evidently consoles him in the comparative unpopularity† of his own, and then thus proceeds, alluding to Johnson's Lives of the Poets:

'As I do not mean to bring down this retrospect to our own times, it may with propriety be closed at the era of this distinguished event. From the literature of other ages and countries, proofs equally cogent might have been adduced that the opinions announced in the former part of this essay are founded upon truth. It was not an

* He is pleased, among other curious judgments, to disapprove the title of "Metaphysical Poets," which Johnson has bestowed on Cowley and some others.

† The word *popular* is evidently unpleasing to the author's ear, notwithstanding his fondness for 'the *people*.' This is capricious.

agreeable office, nor a prudent undertaking, to declare them, but their importance seemed to render it a duty. It may still be asked, where lies the particular relation of what has been said to these volumes?—The question will be easily answered by the discerning reader who is old enough to remember the taste that was prevalent when some of these poems were first published, seventeen years ago; who has also observed to what degree the poetry of this island has since that period been coloured by them; and who is further aware of the unremitting hostility with which, upon some principle or other, they have each and all been opposed. A sketch of my own notion of the constitution of fame has been given; and, as far as concerns myself, I have cause to be satisfied. The love, the admiration, the indifference, the slight, the aversion, and even the contempt, with which these poems have been received, knowing, as I do, the source within my own mind, from which they have proceeded, and the labour and pains, which, when labour and pains appeared needful, have been bestowed upon them,—must all, if I think consistently, be received as pledges and tokens, bearing the same general impression though widely different in value;—they are all proofs that for the present time I have not laboured in vain; and afford assurances, more or less authentic, that the products of my industry will endure.'

To complete the modesty of this picture of "*Myself*" by an author, we subjoin the concluding paragraph of the Essay:

'Towards the public the writer hopes that he feels as much deference as it is intitled to: but to the people, philosophically characterized, and to the embodied spirit of their knowledge, so far as it exists and moves, at the present, faithfully supported by its two wings, the past and the future, his devout respect, his reverence, is due. He offers it willingly and readily; and, this done, takes leave of his readers, by assuring them—that, if he were not persuaded that the contents of these volumes, and the work to which they are subsidiary, evinced something of the "Vision and the Faculty divine;" and that, both in words and things, they will operate in their degree, to extend the domain of sensibility for the delight, the honour, and the benefit of human nature, notwithstanding the many happy hours which he has employed in their composition, and the manifold comforts and enjoyments they have procured to him, he would not, if a wish could do it, save them from immediate destruction;—from becoming at this moment, to the world, as a thing that had never been.'

"*Emendaturis ignibus ipse* darem."

Credat Judæus Apella.

We are so thoroughly overwhelmed by the high and mighty tone of this author's prose, that we really must have immediate recourse to his verse, in order to get rid of the painful humiliation and sense of inferiority which he inflicts on his readers. There, (*Dieu merci!*) we are comforted by silliness instead of system; by want of harmony instead of abundance of pride; by downright vacancy instead of gran-

deur and presumption. Will any one believe that the critic who speaks so contemptuously of other severe critics, and yet is very gall and vinegar himself,—and the poet,—are the same person? We will not pain him farther than by contrasting the titles, or a few lines only, of his pitiable, seriously pitiable frolics of versification, with the pompous language just quoted

'Pull the primrose, sister Anne!
Pull as many as you can!'

'Oft I had heard of Lucy Gray.'

'Spade! with which Wilkinson half tilled his lands.'

'The little orphan, Alice Fell.'

'Clarkson! it was an obstinate hill to climb.'

'There's George Fisher, Charles Fleming, and Reginald Shore.'

'Fair Ellen Irwin, when she sate.'

'Nay, Betty, go! good Betty, go!'

'What is't that ails young Harry Gill?'

''Twas little Barbara Lewthwaite, a child of beauty rare.'

'Jones! when from Calais southward you and I
Travelled on foot together,' &c.

This '*class*' we could increase and diversify largely: but, craving leave to call it the "*Class of Names*," we shall proceed to the '*Class of Nonsense*,' which is still more fruitful, and on which we should dwell at more length, if it were not in vain to attempt to do justice to this part of our subject. We shall therefore deem it sufficient to give one entire specimen, although perhaps rather hackneyed, of the '*class*' in question; and then let our readers judge of the value of that author's criticisms, who, after having himself thus written, dares to treat Dryden and Pope with the arrogant disrespect which is manifest in the essay above mentioned. *

'THE STAR-GAZERS.

'What crowd is this? what have we here! we must not pass it by;
A telescope upon its frame, and pointed to the sky:
Long is it as a barber's pole, or mast of little boat,
Some little pleasure-skiff, that doth on Thames's waters float.

'The show-man chooses well his place, 'tis Leicester's busy square;
And he's as happy in his night, for the heavens are blue and fair;

* The passage cited from Dryden is far from deserving the censure with which this critic loads it, (pages 358, 359. vol. i.) and his attack on Pope is exactly the same as that of Mr. Elton, which we noticed in a late Number.

Calm, though impatient is the crowd; each is ready with the fee,
And envies him that's looking — what an insight must it be!

'Yet show-man, where can lie the cause? Shall thy implement have blame,
A boaster, that when he is tried, fails, and is put to shame?
Or is it good as others are, and be their eyes in fault?
Their eyes, or minds? or, finally, is this resplendent vault?

'Is nothing of that radiant pomp so good as we have here?
Or gives a thing but small delight that never can be dear?
The silver moon with all her vales, and hills of mightiest fame,
Do they betray us when they're seen? and are they but a name?

'Or is it rather that conceit rapacious is and strong,
And bounty never yields so much but it seems to do her wrong?
Or is it, that when human souls a journey long have had,
And are returned into themselves, they cannot but be sad?

'Or must we be constrained to think that these spectators rude,
Poor in estate, of manners base, men of the multitude,
Have souls which never yet have ris'n, and therefore prostrate lie?
No, no, this cannot be — men thirst for power and majesty!

'Does, then, a deep and earnest thought the blissful mind employ
Of him who gazes, or has gazed? a grave and steady joy,'
That doth reject all shew of pride, admits no outward sign,
Because not of this noisy world, but silent and divine!

'Whatever be the cause, 'tis sure that they who pry and pore
Seem to meet with little gain, seem less happy than before:
One after one they take their turns, nor have I one espied
That doth not slacky go away, as if dissatisfied.'

So much for the detached and the connected childishness of this author. We are aware that we may be told by the admirers of Mr. Wordsworth that this is one of his *early* absurdities, and must not be brought forwards as the test of his present improvement. Why, then, does he republish it? But, besides the fact that the year 1807 has not very long elapsed, we are not sure whether we have not selected a poem which is a favourite with its author; and which, notwithstanding the unpoetical and unmeaning character of it, will be *gazed* at by '*the people*' with more delight than the stars in Leicester-square: although we cannot ourselves well imagine the mind of the critic

'That does not *slacky* go away, as if dissatisfied,'

not only from this poem, but from nine-tenths of the collection before us.

Having executed an unpleasant task in endeavouring, as our duty enjoined, to moderate the unusual arrogance of this writer, by condensing some specimens of it into one mass, and by illustrating his favourable sentiments of himself with a few examples

amples of his practical skill in the ridiculous, we shall now turn with real pleasure to the remaining tenth part of these volumes, in which we find much that will give rational pleasure to the reader.

We begin with 'an Extract from the Conclusion of a Poem, composed upon leaving School,' so far back as the year 1786.

'Dear native regions, I foretell
From what I feel at this farewell,
That, wheresoe'er my steps shall tend,
And whensoe'er my course shall end,
If in that hour a single tie
Survive of local sympathy,
My soul will cast the backward view,
The longing look alone on you.

'Thus, when the sun, prepared for rest,
Hath gained the precincts of the west,
Though his departing radiance fail
To illuminate the hollow vale,
A lingering light he fondly throws
On the dear hills where first he rose.'

This youthful production certainly gave a promise of purer taste than a love for singularity, and a spirit of imaginary system *, have subsequently permitted to ripen into maturity. The poem of 'Yarrow visited,' composed in 1814, is of peculiar softness and beauty; and we only omit to quote it, as well as the charming lines 'written while sailing in a Boat at Evening,' and those in 'Remembrance of Collins,' which are perhaps still more delightful, in order to make room for a longer and equally pleasing proof of Mr. Wordsworth's poetical abilities, and (with the painful exception above noticed) of his most amiable tone of mind. We quote it indeed in preference to any of the later compositions, of whatever description. We shall not, however, transcribe the first and the last stanzas of this poem, although strongly characteristic of the author's peculiarities; since we cannot persuade ourselves that they do not injure the effect of the natural sorrows of a lover, the object of whose affections has been snatched from him by death.

'"Oh, move, thou cottage, from behind that oak!
Or let the aged tree uprooted lie,
That in some other way yon smoke
May mount into the sky!

* Mr. Wordsworth should remember that the *notice* which he has gained from the public has principally arisen from these faults.

The

The clouds pass on; they from the heavens depart:
I look — the sky is empty space;
I know not what I trace;
But, when I cease to look, my hand is on my heart.

'"O! what a weight is in these shades! Ye leaves,
When will that dying murmur be suppress't?
Your sound my heart of peace bereaves,
It robs my heart of rest.
Thou thrush, that singest loud — and loud and free,
Into yon row of willows flit,
Upon that alder sit;
Or sing another song, or choose another tree.

'" Roll back, sweet rill! back to thy mountain-bounds,
And there for ever be thy waters chained!
For thou dost haunt the air with sounds
That cannot be sustained;
If still beneath that pine-tree's ragged bough
Headlong yon waterfall must come,
Oh let it then be dumb! —
Be any thing, sweet rill, but that which thou art now.

'" Thou Eglantine, whose arch so proudly towers,
(Even like a rainbow spanning half the vale,)
Thou one fair shrub, oh! shed thy flowers,
And stir not in the gale.
For thus to see thee nodding in the air,
To see thy arch thus stretch and bend,
Thus rise and thus descend, —
Disturbs me, till the sight is more than I can bear."'

Mr. W.'s sonnets in honour of liberty may boast, in many instances, of distinguished merit; and they seem to have been called forth by the genuine feelings of joy or indignation, as patriotism successfully opposed tyranny or was cruelly oppressed by it, in the late eventful struggles. Why will Mr. Wordsworth ever be so untrue to himself, as to desert the manly and vigorous style of this burst of poetry?

'A Prophecy. — *February* 1807.

'High deeds, O Germans, are to come from you!
Thus in your books the record shall be found,
"A watchword was pronounced, a potent sound,
Arminius! — all the people quaked like dew
Stirred by the breeze — they rose, a nation, true,
True to itself — the mighty Germany,
She of the Danube and the northern sea,
She rose, — and off at once the yoke she threw.
All power was given her in the dreadful trance —
Those new-born kings she withered like a flame."
—Woe to them all! but heaviest woe and shame
To that Bavarian who did first advance
His banner in accursed league with France,
First open traitor to her sacred name!'

Art.

ART. II. *The White Doe of Rylstone; or, the Fate of the Nortons, a Poem.* By William Wordsworth. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

WE had scarcely completed the preceding notice of Mr. Wordsworth's new poems and re-publications, when we were called to listen again to his lyre, or harp, or hurdy-gurdy, (as it too often may be denominated,) and to sympathize with his 'White Doe of Rylstone.' We hoped to be able to meet him now with a less interrupted pleasure than before: but indeed this is not yet the case. So tired, however, are we with pointing out errors which we fear must be now regarded as incurable, that, after having remarked that all the author's usual excentricities of thought and defects in composition are to be found in the thin quarto before us, we shall resign the wearisome office of censure for the present, and amuse ourselves and our readers with a few extracts which display elegance and tenderness of manner.

It must previously be observed that this poem is founded on a local tradition, and on the ballad in Percy's Collection, (a book to which Mr. Wordsworth very gratefully acknowleges his manifold obligations,) intitled "The Rising of the North." The tradition is thus stated. Not long after the Dissolution, "a white doe, say the aged people of the neighbourhood, long continued to make a weekly pilgrimage from Rylstone over the fells of Bolton, and was constantly found in the Abbey Churchyard during divine service; after the close of which she returned home, as regularly as the rest of the congregation." (Dr. Whitaker's History of the Deanery of Craven.) Rylstone was the property and residence of the Nortons, who were distinguished in that ill-advised and unfortunate insurrection in the 12th year of Elizabeth, 1569, which led the author to connect with this tradition the principal circumstances of their fate.

As the part of this poem which is concerned with human affairs is, in our apprehension, very inferior to that in which the supernatural Doe is depicted, we shall confine our selections to the latter; and, as the introduction of this extraordinary animal and the final dismissal of her are among the most successful passages, they are those which we shall now transcribe, submitting them without farther criticism to the qualified approbation of the discerning reader.

The people being all gone into church at Bolton Abbey,

—— 'scarcely have they disappeared,
Ere the prelusive hymn is heard:—
With one consent the people rejoice,
Filling the church with a lofty voice!

They

They sing a service which they feel:
For 'tis the sun-rise now of zeal,
And faith and hope are in their prime,
In great Eliza's golden time.

'A moment ends the fervent din,
And all is hushed, without and within;
For, though the priest more tranquilly
Recites the holy liturgy,
The only voice which you can hear
Is the river murmuring near.
—When soft! — the dusky trees between,
And down the path through the open green,
Where is no living thing to be seen;
And through yon gateway, where is found,
Beneath the arch with ivy bound,
Free entrance to the church-yard ground;
And right across the verdant sod
Towards the very house of God;
—Comes gliding in with lovely gleam,
Comes gliding in serene and slow,
Soft and silent as a dream,
A solitary Doe!
White she is as lily of June,
And beauteous as the silver moon
When out of sight the clouds are driven,
And she is left alone in heaven;
Or like a ship some gentle day
In sunshine sailing far away,
A glittering ship, that hath the plain
Of ocean for her own domain.

'Lie silent in your graves ye dead!
Lie quiet in your church-yard bed!
Ye living tend your holy cares,
Ye multitude pursue your prayers,
And blame not me if my heart and sight
Are occupied with one delight!
'Tis a work for Sabbath hours
If I with this bright creature go;
Whether she be of forest bowers,
From the bowers of earth below;
Or a spirit, for one day given,
A gift of grace from purest heaven.

'What harmonious pensive changes
Wait upon her as she ranges
Round and through this pile of state,
Overthrown and desolate!
Now a step or two her way
Is through space of open day,
Where the enamoured sunny light
Brightens her that was so bright;

Now

Now doth a delicate shadow fall,
Falls upon her like a breath,
From some lofty arch or wall,
As she passes underderneath:
Now some gloomy nook partakes
Of the glory that she makes,—
High-ribbed vault of stone or cell
With perfect cunning framed as well
Of stone and ivy, and the spread
Of the elder's bushy head;
Some jealous and forbidding cell,
That doth the living stars repel,
And where no flower hath leave to dwell.[a]

We have no room for an ampler description of this visionary and soothing creature: but we must not withhold the pleasure which we have promised, and shall therefore extract the account of her last appearance.

Emily, the sole remaining branch of the Nortons, is introduced as wandering about her paternal scenes, accompanied by this gentle animal, who has been wondrously restored to her mistress:

'But most to Bolton's sacred pile,
On favouring nights, she loved to go:
There ranged through cloister, court, and aisle,
Attended by the soft-paced Doe;
Nor did she fear in the still moonshine
To look upon Saint Mary's shrine;
Nor on the lonely turf that showed
Where Francis slept in his last abode.
For that she came; there oft and long
She sate in meditation strong:
And, when she from the abyss returned
Of thoughts, she neither shrunk nor mourned;
Was happy that she lived to greet
Her mute companion as it lay
In love and pity at her feet;
How happy in her turn to meet
That recognition! the mild glance
Beamed from that gracious countenance;—
Communication, like the ray
Of a new morning, to the nature
And prospects of the inferior creature!

'A mortal song we frame, by dower
Encouraged of celestial power;
Power which the viewless spirit shed
By whom we were first visited;
Whose voice we heard, whose hand and wings
Swept like a breeze the conscious strings.

When,

When, left in solitude, erewhile
We stood before this ruined pile,
And, quitting unsubstantial dreams,
Sang in this presence kindred themes;
Distress and desolation spread
Through human hearts, and pleasure dead, —
Dead — but to live again on earth,
A second and yet nobler birth;
Dire overthrow, and yet how high
The re-ascent in sanctity!
From fair to fairer; day by day
A more divine and loftier way!
Even such this blessed pilgrim trod,
By sorrow lifted tow'rds her God;
Uplifted to the purest sky
Of undisturbed mortality.
Her own thoughts loved she; and could bend
A dear look to her lowly friend, —
There stopped; — her thirst was satisfied
With what this innocent spring supplied —
Her sanction inwardly she bore,
And stood apart from human cares:
But to the world returned no more,
Although with no unwilling mind
Help did she give at need, and joined
The Wharfdale peasants in their prayers.
At length, thus faintly, faintly tied
To earth, she was set free, and died.
Thy soul, exalted Emily,
Maid of the blasted family,
Rose to the God from whom it came!
In Rylstone church her mortal frame
Was buried by her mother's side.'

A very pleasing engraving, from a landscape painted by Sir George Beaumont, is prefixed to the volume.

ART. III. *The Philosophy of Human Nature*, containing a complete Theory of Human Interests. To which is added, An Essay on the Origin of Evil. By John Duncan. 8vo. pp. 360. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

A FORMER metaphysical work by Mr. Duncan, concerning Genius, was attentively reviewed in our lxxyth Volume, N.S. p. 247.; and we have now to examine his theory of Human Nature. We then complained, and we again complain, of his want of precision in the use of those terms which are fundamental to his inquiry. We shall renew, however, the same gradual march of survey, step with him from section

to

to section, stay a while on the broader level of his chapters, and look down on the ascent climbed from each of the two parts of his systematic stair-case.

In the introduction, we are told that 'those general causes which actuate nature, denominated *principles*, whether moral or physical, operate with undeviating uniformity.' Here is already an attempt to confound two wholly distinct classes of phænomena. Moral principles are abstract ideas, interior realities only, general expressions of laws inferred from observation; they are the causes of nothing. Physical principles, on the contrary, are material elements, exterior realities, included portions of all facts within our cognizance; they are the causes of every thing. Moral principles exist only in mind, and physical principles only in body. Yet, because the word *principle* is, by a vice or defect of language, applied sometimes for a theorem, and sometimes for an element, Mr. Duncan ventures to predicate concerning principles in general that which is true only of a just theorem, or only of an atomic element. Moral principles do not, but physical principles do, operate with undeviating uniformity.—The author proceeds to talk of 'the few principles which move the machinery of nature.' Is this metaphor, or fact? Is he thinking of moral, or rather of metaphysical, principles, which describe in general terms the laws of the great machine; or is he thinking of physical elements, and does he attribute to them the power of beginning motion? Physical principles are causes, metaphysical principles are consequences: but Mr. D. persists in confounding them; maintains that 'nature is a compound of principles, or general causes;' (that is, of physical principles;) goes on to say 'that each principle is crossed, separated, and divided by another;' and then observes that, 'if the parts of one principle intervene between those of another, its connection seems to persons, who see but a part, to be dissolved.' Now physical principles can ill deserve the name if they be not ultimate elements, though separable into farther component particles. Presently, however, we find that the author was speaking of metaphysical principles, which cannot have parts; for he adds that 'weak minds are so dazzled by every incidental intercourse, which one principle forms with another, that they can make no distinction between them; hence, in attempting to generalize, they at length draw every idea, by the power of assimilation, into the same focus, and, from one cause, account for every phænomenon in nature.' The latter half of this sentence is but too descriptive of the author's own introduction.

Chapter ii. treats of the Mind. Here again we meet with much *verbiage*, and much excursion, but not so free an use of vague

vague and equivocal terms. Mr. D. contends for the immateriality of mind: yet he appears to believe it to be substantial and extended; which is maintaining that mind is a peculiar sort of matter, a matter essentially percipient. This discussion branches through four sections, two of which aspire to prove that mind is not a general quality of matter; nor a relation of material qualities, to borrow a scarcely intelligible phrase from Mr. Duncan, by which he appears to mean a local result of material organization. The other two treat of the difficulty of conceiving the nature of the union between the mind and the body, arising from the extreme difference of their qualities, and of the sympathy between the mind and the body.

It may be said, with regard to the doctrine that evoluble mind pervades all matter, that as, in the Galvanic trough, a long series of successive doublers is necessary to enable us to detect those affections of the atmospheres surrounding the zink and copper-plates, which no doubt would take place in a slight degree with a single pair of plates; so, in the animal frame, a fibrous ramification of tubulated nerve is necessary, not so much to create percipient power, as to diffuse and limit it over one whole, to bring out and magnify its faintest intelligence, and to record the path of past perceptions. This evoluble mind, according to the philosophy of the antients, constitutes the soul of the universe, and is employed in perceiving for the use of the great whole, when it is not called forth to animate individual beings.

Chapter iii. converses on Self-love. Mr. D. is more at home in moral or ethic than in metaphysical questions, and treats far better of the motives of conduct than of the theory of thought. First, he investigates the motive of all human actions, which he places in self-love. Secondly, he attempts the definition of morality, which he makes to consist in observing those general rules that are most beneficial to the whole. Thirdly, he examines the causes which diversify self-love, and speaks much at large of prudence, of taste, and of sympathy.

The laws of sympathy are as yet not ascertained either by the physiologist or the metaphysician. Dr. Adam Smith, in his beautiful investigation of the Theory of Moral Sentiments, justly attributes to sympathy our disinterested concern in the well-being of others. Yet even he, perhaps, errs in describing sympathy as a result of exerting the imagination: — whereas the imagery, which enables us to place ourselves in the situation of another, is itself but a consequence of that organic mimesis, that pre-established harmony between distinct human frames, which occasions them to have fellow-feelings, and to vibrate responsively, whenever made conscious of each other's

pain or pleasure. Let us hear the present author on the subject, and then subjoin our comments:

'No emotion can be felt but on our own account. All feeling arises from what occasions agreeable or disagreeable sensations to ourselves. No affection can be disinterested. Even that sympathy which we have with a person who will never know it, with an inferior animal, or a fictitious account of distress, must arise from our own interest; for we can no more be affected without interest than we can feel without pleasure or pain. Such interest is excited by changing situation, in imagination, with the sufferer. Its degree then depends upon the perfection of the analogy between his circumstances and our own; for we can conceive and feel no distress unless we are conscious of the possibility of being subject to it ourselves.

'The sensations which arise from this species of probability, or from sympathy, are produced by the greatest extension of interest, or by imaginary interest, and are, therefore, the weakest of all. But all our feelings, even in the affairs of others, arise from our own interest, and before being affected by their pains or pleasures we must transfer them to ourselves. It is from the appropriation of the passions of others, that we derive entertainment from the various circumstances and incidents which the history of mankind displays, and the transactions of daily life exhibit. It is from sympathy, that all generous moral feelings, such as enmity towards the unjust, detestation of the ungrateful, and indignation against the mean and narrow minded, arise. It is from appropriation and assimilation, that we hate tyranny, and feel for the objects of it, as he who oppresses others, would, if we were within the reach of his power, oppress us. From transferring misfortunes and enjoyments to ourselves, arises the pleasure of doing good in secret; it is the motive of that charity which has the prospect of no future recompense, and of that trouble which we take for the entertainment of others, which is independent of vanity or the prospect of reward. We are always willing, if it cost us nothing, to enjoy the pleasure of relieving the distressed, and of adding to the gratification of the happy. To relieve distress, raises in us the same sensation as if we were relieved from distress ourselves, and what is added to the enjoyment of mankind may, by sympathy, be added to our own. We are, also, often, induced to respect the feelings of others lest we do a violence to our own.

'The sensations which arise from sympathy are always proportioned to the connexion in which the object of it stands to us. We are more affected by the death of a friend than by that of a stranger, and by the death of a human being than by that of any other. The accidents of the human race are, indeed, always matter of serious consideration, while the sufferings of inferior animals are seldom thought worthy of reflection.

'The feeling which arises from sympathy is of the same nature with that which arises from real interest, although weaker. It is impossible to sympathize willingly with any but agreeable circumstances, unless we imagine that our sympathy with distress occasions any alleviation of it. In affairs in which we are actually engaged and interested, or which are not created by imagination, and afford

no opportunity of changing bad into good, we sympathize with the happy, and partake of the good fortune of the successful, as much more readily as pleasure is preferable to pain. It is, in short, only the real or imaginary power which we have of converting distress into happiness which, at any time, influences us to sympathize willingly with distant or supposititious unfortunate characters. If we did not associate with sympathy towards distant or imaginary misfortune, the idea of the relief of its object, we could no more voluntarily sympathize with it than we could love pain; and that sympathy which we have towards real evil is very nearly connected with fear.

'Painful objects are always hated, and pleasing loved, whether real or imaginary. The fortunate are surrounded with companions; but the unfortunate are avoided as much as those who carry pestilence along with them. Unless, therefore, those to whom we propose to complain are interested in relieving us, repeated observation has proved it uniformly to be the wisest conduct to conceal our misfortunes and preserve the appearance of happiness.

'We always reluctantly sympathize with the misfortunes of others when they are closely connected with us, or when such sympathy occasions any violent degree of mental affection. Distresses, to which we are united only by analogy, we never willingly sympathize with, when that sympathy turns those misfortunes which were but imaginary with respect to us, into real, or occasions to us any actual danger, or loss of property.

'The smallest portion of reality never fails to overcome the greatest of fancy; the smallest degree of real, the greatest of imaginary interest. We often seize inconsiderable advantages which may produce the utmost calamity to others, without feeling any sympathy with their distress. The most trifling interest of our own, when put in balance with the highest of others, easily preponderates. A man will kill a brute for amusement, though every animal is of the same value to itself.'

We may perhaps question several parts of this doctrine. Many emotions are felt solely on account of others; and many affections are disinterested. When a bugle-horn is played within reach of an echo, vibrations are excited in the body adapted to reflect sound, which carry back the same tune in an opposite direction. So, when a shriek of distress is uttered within human hearing, a strong disposition arises in the hearer to repeat the same pathetic tone. We are living echoes. Whether this disposition to repeat the moan of woe amounts to volition or stops short at perception, the ideas of pain and suffering, necessarily associated with such shriek or moan, never fail to arise in the mind; and this independently of any calculation whether the shriek in question announces some thing useful or hurtful to the hearer. As with pain, so with pleasure. The associated ideas of enjoyment awaken, through sympathy, an analogous state of the frame; and the imitative propensity of our nature belongs not only to the entire animal, but

but to each limb and fibre of our bodies. If a man hears the laugh of glee over a wall, the features of his face are involuntarily disposed to assume a comic expression similar to that of the utterer; and this would happen even to a blind man hearing such a laugh for the first time, because the determinations of the different organs are concatenated; and the ideas corresponding with such determination are consequently associated by nature, previously to any experience of their habitual conjunction.

Surely this ready sympathy with our neighbour is quite disinterested, prior to any reckoning about our personal concern in the incident, and moreover prior to any ideal transmigration or change of place with him. The lutes are strung alike, and therefore vibrate in unison. We can imagine and feel distress, as that of a woman in labour, though conscious of the impossibility of being subject to it ourselves.

Although Dr. Adam Smith, in the first section of his Theory of Moral Sentiments, says that the source of our fellow-feeling for the misery of others is our changing places in fancy with the sufferer, we believe that, in many instances of great commiseration, no such ideal transfer occurs. If we make a moan to our dog, he will begin to howl. The sympathy is the ultimate law. If we gaze steadily on the face of Annibal Caracci's weeping angel, we shall soon be disposed to weep; and the effect is not produced by our thinking of the suffering Christ at whom he points, because the other figures so directed do not produce this emotion: so that it arises from an organic *mimesis* of him who is thus evidently sobbing with grief. Garrick, it is notorious, could sit down in a room and look the spectator into tears, without announcing any specific personification.

If it were from the appropriation of the passions of others, — from transferring their misfortunes and enjoyments to ourselves, — that the effects of sympathy arose, we should always sympathize in proportion to the facility of the ideal transfer: but, on the contrary, we sympathize always in proportion to the complete expression or delineation of the joy and the woe: poetic and theatric sympathies often surpass those of real and practical life. At the hanging of a thief, half the spectators change places with him in imagination, and nobody weeps: but let his sobbing widow, frantic with grief, force her way through the croud, and shriek and swoon at his feet, then tears will flow, even the tears of those who secretly congratulate her on the happy release.

All sympathy, however, implies some leisure of the frame. After having heard a note of distress, we must let the string

that is struck take its time to attain the exact vibration of the original string: — we must let it put into consentaneous motion the naturally allied and concatenated organs, and carry into the countenance and attitude the corresponding expression there of the degree and kind of suffering which would emit the cry heard at first: — else, the greatest possible sympathy will not be attained. For this we have not always leisure, and may then be said to sympathize reluctantly: but in general such reluctance results from the presence of a more imminently pressing passion, and not from any antipathy to strong emotions. Indeed, those of sympathy are seldom strong enough to be unwelcome. They are always accompanied with the conscious certainty that in us they arise at second-hand. When of a painful kind, they are much subdued by the conviction that they do not originate in any direct injury to ourselves; and, when pleasant, they are much lessened by an opposite but analogous feeling of envy.

The concluding proposition of this author, 'that the smallest portion of reality never fails to overcome the greatest of fancy,' is so contrary to our experience that we should prefer to invert the affirmation; by observing that, as men think of realities only by means of pictures in the imagination, and employ these to give motives to their volitions, — and as many pictures in the imagination, which have no real prototype, are coloured by the poet or novelist into equal or superior vividness with the impressions of reality, — it must often happen that unreal and fancied interests govern human conduct. Indeed, Mr. Duncan, in the latter part of his book, (p. 243.) admits this.

The fourth chapter treats of the Senses, and branches into a successive analysis of feeling, tasting, seeing, hearing, smelling, the sense of beauty, and the theory of beauty. These seven sections contain little that is peculiar to the author's system.— The fifth chapter analyses the several passions, and disserts successively on love, hatred, joy, grief, anger, fear, pity, envy, vanity, modesty, admiration, hope, disappointment, despair, laughter, and the secondary passions.

Mr. D. opposes *vanity* to modesty, and appears to use the word for egotism, or overvaluing one's self: but this is not a classical use of the term, which is too indefinite for the purposes of philosophy. — The panegyric of laughter here given may deserve transcription:

'Laughter is one of the most extraordinary of passions. It is confined to the human race, is generated entirely by the mind, and produced singularly in the body. There is no apparent peculiar necessity for it to human nature. It seems, indeed, a gift of generosity from the Almighty. The object of laughter is incongruity of ideas,

ideas, or inconsistency of actions or things. But the former produces this passion only by representing, or referring to, the latter.

'Laughter is also a passion which represents joy, and which it has the power of expressing as well as the effects of wit and humour. The means which brutes have of expressing satisfaction are by the eyes, leaping, or the movement of the tail. But the chief expression of joy in mankind, independent of speech, is by laughter, or that lesser species of it, smiling.

'The power of denoting joy, or a state of pleasure and satisfaction, is, however, the least important purpose of the faculty of laughter. It is chiefly useful for expressing those sensations which arise from wit, humour, inconsistency, and absurdity.

'Laughter, by some, has been thought to have an affinity to vanity. Laughter, it is true, is sometimes occasioned by what is ridiculous in ourselves, as well as in others; but in that case, it must be in something upon which we do not value ourselves. Laughter, indeed, generally denotes triumph and exultation; and may, in every case, be reduced to an expression of contempt.

'Laughter has not the smallest appearance of arising immediately from any external sense. Sensible objects obtrude their effects upon us, without the concurrence, assistance, or even knowledge of the mind, until they are felt by it. They always command attention, and produce the same effects on the same senses. But if our inclinations be unsuitable to the perception of an object of laughter, it is beyond the power of any of the senses to communicate an idea of it to the mind. Laughter is a passion arising from a sense more purely mental than even that from which the idea of beauty arises. It has no dependence upon any particular corporeal sense, and has not always an immediate connexion with external objects, but is often produced abstractly by the action of the mind, or the operation of one mental faculty upon another. A person deprived of every sense, supposing such a thing possible, would, if the means of communicating ideas to him, and of expressing the passion in the body only remained, still be capable of laughter.

'Laughter is a passion which yields nothing but the purest pleasure, and which is incapable of producing pain. The pleasure which arises from laughter is the highest species of joy, as it proceeds from the greatest and most refined degree of novelty.'

We do not see the propriety of classing laughter among the passions; since it is a pantomime descriptive of a peculiar form of joy or exultation, and not more intitled than scowling to be called a passion. It is rather a gesture accompanied by sonorous bursts of voice, and is in fact the reverse of moaning; which is a gesture, or attitude of features, descriptive of a peculiar form of grief or suffering, and also accompanied by sonorous inarticulate interjections. Laughter can be superinduced by stimulating drugs, and is nearly allied to the external expression of sottish self-complacency.

Chapter vi. undertakes to examine the theory of pleasure, and places its most essential condition in variety. The author is of opinion that no emotion, when long continued, stimulates or interests the soul in the same degree as when it was fresh, and that it will finally wear itself out. Hence a necessary appetite, which may be termed curiosity, for new objects of attention. Those which stimulate too powerfully give pain at first, then pleasure, and at length annoy by feebleness of impression. Pain, in the author's judgment, is relative (p. 248.) as well as pleasure; its intensity is measured by comparison, and not by positive sensation. Pain and pleasure, he says, (p. 251.) are but different degrees of affection of mind, and less or more of the same thing. Any situation however miserable, or any pain however great, if we could at first but manage to bear it, would by custom become light. This doctrine is defended by many ingenious and by some strong arguments, and constitutes the most original portion of the volume. It is applied in detail to the more conspicuous phænomena of human nature, in the chapters on Happiness, Sensibility, and Bravery.—In a third section, the author contends that oblivion is necessary to re-create novelty, and that originality is but the idol of ignorance: he also converses on Hope and on Sublimity. He draws the following important and consolatory consequence from his theory, which thus coincides with the inference of Azais in his *Compensation of Human Destinies:* (see Rev. Vol. lxi. N. S. p. 525. Appendix.)

'Every thing, after possession, becomes little. It is the mind which possesses it. As the change, therefore, from a lower to a higher situation, can produce only temporary sensations and transient affections, neither eminence nor obscurity, riches nor poverty, can render one person permanently more or less happy than another. Happiness does not depend on the proportion and relation which one thing bears to another, but on the proportion of the mind and the relation of the disposition to external objects. It is not the difference of things, but the difference of minds and dispositions which distinguishes the happiness of one person from that of another.'

An appendix, on the origin or rather on the nature of evil, concludes the volume. If it can once be proved that pain and pleasure are relative states of the mind, and that we are liable to call the same sensation *painful* when compared with a very pleasing one, and *pleasing* when compared with a very painful one; there must, at all times, in all places, and in all ranks of animated being, exist the same tendency to rise above and to fall below the average degree of impression, which to each being appears its point, or level, of indifference. Now, if animated nature reckons nothing as happiness but what rises

above this average level, and nothing as misery but what sinks below it; and if this average level be itself a fluctuating stage, which rises with the flood of prosperity and sinks with the ebb of adversity; it will follow that all animated beings are equally happy, or equally miserable, from the archangel to the earth-worm, and that their happiness, or misery, can admit of no permanent increase or diminution. To this conclusion the author's arguments obviously tend: but we do not think that all the propositions are satisfactorily established. We consider, however, the second part of his work, in which they chiefly occur, as the most interesting and original portion of it; and we should recommend, in any future edition, a contraction and revisal of the first and greater half, and a dilatation and completion of the second less considerable disquisition.

ART. IV. *A Treatise on Fever*, with Observations on the Practice adopted for its Cure, in the Fever-Hospital and House of Recovery, in Dublin. Illustrated by Cases. By William Stoker, M.D., one of the Physicians of that Institution, &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

WE apprehend that this treatise is to be regarded, at least in some measure, as a reply, or a counterpoise, to the work of Dr. Mills, which we reviewed in our lxxiiid Volume; and in which the efficacy of general bleeding in fever was advanced as the result of very extensive practical observation in the Dublin Fever-hospital. Dr. Stoker is one of the regular physicians to that establishment, in which Dr. Mills has only been employed on some occasions of peculiar urgency; and the publication of this latter gentleman seeming to express or imply a censure on the practice of the ordinary medical attendants, they wrote a letter of vindication, which was answered by Dr. Mills: this controversy was carried on in several of the late numbers of the Edinburgh Medical Journal. In the present volume, Dr. Stoker details at some length the nature of the establishment, and his mode of treating the disease; which, we suppose, is to be regarded as nearly similar to the plan adopted by his colleagues. In the body of the treatise, he refers to Dr. Mills only by implication, but he re-prints in an appendix a part of the letter which had been published in the Edinburgh Journal.

In the preface, Dr. S. gives an interesting account of the plan and situation of the Dublin Fever-hospital, which appears to be the most complete establishment of the kind in the British empire. The whole description is too long to be quoted, but

we select one important point for the information of our readers, respecting the relative advantages of large and small wards. We are told that "'it was at first a question whether large or small wards were to be preferred: the larger wards were recommended, by their more complete ventilation, by the smaller surface of walls, for contagion to attach itself to, and by the less expence; the smaller, by their affording the means of separating the patients, and by the inconvenience being avoided of the patients disturbing each other, as well as of the shock which the appearance of death must at times occasion; the smaller wards would also admit of more frequent cleansing and fumigation."' The Committee decided in favour of the subdivision into small wards: but we learn that they have since had occasion to alter their opinion on this subject, and that a direct experiment was tried for the purpose of ascertaining the comparative benefit of wards of different sizes. The following is stated to be the result:

'As it is now but fourteen months since the experiment was instituted, it is perhaps premature to form a decided opinion; but I believe my colleagues think favourably of the large wards, and certainly, from an experience of them for four months, during the two last of which I attended the cases given in the following work, I am disposed to prefer them; ventilation is more complete, and though disturbance from delirious or maniacal patients, or the shock given by the appearance of those in the worst states of fever, is more frequent, yet, on the other hand, I am satisfied that the confidence inspired by a greater number of those recovering, in view at the same time, nearly at least counterbalances that objection, an objection which might be altogether obviated by having one or two additional wards adjacent to each of the large ones, whither such patients as were in a hopeless condition, or became violently delirious, might be removed, or carried in the first instance.'

Our opinion on this subject entirely coincides with that of Dr. Stoker.

The object of the author seems rather to relate the mode of practice which he employs in the hospital, than to enter into any minute detail of the nature and symptoms of fever. It is assumed that the disease of which he treats is the contagious typhus, which exists in a greater or less degree among the crouded population of large cities, and which either originates from or is much aggravated by impure air, especially by human effluvia. His field of observation appears to have been very extensive, since he informs us that the medical treatment detailed in this work is given as an epitome of his experience for nearly ten years in a hospital in which 15,164 patients had been received during that period. The only remedies which

have proved applicable to all cases of the disease are cleanliness, ventilation, cool regimen, and plentiful dilution, to which he afterward adds partial fomentation and friction:—but, although we learn from this statement that there is no direct specific, nor any general febrifuge, yet many remedies possess great power in removing particular symptoms, and in counteracting certain conditions of the system that are connected with the disease. A list is given of those which are found to be the most generally useful, arranged according to their respective importance; viz. purgatives, topical bleeding, antimonial powders, yeast, wine, emetics, cold or tepid ablution, blisters. We observe that some remedies are here entirely omitted, which a few years ago would have occupied a high rank in the estimation of every practitioner, and at the present time are still very extensively employed. Of these the most important are bark and opium; and we may also refer to general bleeding as a practice which has had its strenuous advocates. Some of our readers may be disappointed at finding cold ablution placed so low in the list: but we are informed that it was seldom applicable in the Dublin-hospital, in consequence of the patients being generally affected with or predisposed to some pulmonary complaint. Bark, we are told, is rarely prescribed, except when the disease manifests a tendency to an intermittent or remittent form.—On the subject of general bleeding, it is admitted that the combination of pulmonic affections with fever renders it frequently indispensable, but that it is not conceived to be necessary in pure typhus; and, on the contrary, it is stated as the result of Dr. Stoker's experience, that any apparent present relief which may be obtained from it is more than counterbalanced by the subsequent debility. With respect to the nature of the blood, we are told that, although the portion first taken might be buffed, this appearance rarely continued in successive bleedings: 'but on the contrary, soon after being drawn, the crassamentum is dissolved or broken into fragments, tinging the serum with its colour, which sometimes is of a very dark brown, and sometimes of a greenish hue.'

Dr. S. then proceeds to consider in succession the respective merits of the remedies which compose the list above mentioned. With regard to purgatives, he states little more than an expression of his complete coincidence in the views of Dr. Hamilton, as detailed in his well-known work on that subject. Topical bleeding stands in the second place, and is of course considered as a remedy of great importance. In almost every degree of febrile excitement, the head is more or less affected with a kind of tendency to the accumulation of blood in this part, which it is extremely desirable to remove. This may occasionally

occasionally be done, it is said, by the application of cold to the head, and of fomentations to the feet: but it is generally necessary to draw blood from the part by scarification, or by leeches, or by opening the temporal artery. To the last mode Dr. S. gives a decided preference, both as being the most efficacious and as being an operation very easily accomplished by those who are in the habit of performing it. The quantity of blood taken is seldom more than six ounces, and frequently relief will be given by a much smaller portion. Some cases of the good effects of this remedy are related in detail.

Antimonial powders are a very favourite medicine with the author:

'In the commencement of mixed cases of fever, in which evacuants have been employed as far as the warning symptoms of debility admit of, without removal of the inflammatory action of the vessels, and in the advanced stages of slow fevers attended by parched skin and quick pulse, there is no remedy perhaps of superior efficacy. The discharge which they excite will not alone account for their modus operandi; for equal discharges caused by other means are not succeeded by proportionate relief, and sometimes the pulse is reduced both in frequency and hardness, feverish anxiety diminished, and sleep induced during their administration, though no such adequate evacuation be observable.'—'To an attentive observer, these powders will often appear to promote the efforts of nature towards health; therefore their efficacy will be more remarkable, when exhibited on any of the critical days; and if the time of the day for administering an increased dose is to be chosen, the usual hour of rest should be preferred, as their effect in relieving anxiety and promoting rest, will be then assisted by the well-known influence of habit on the animal economy.'

We acknowlege that Dr. Stoker's sentiments do not quite agree with our own on this point; and we are disposed to conjecture that the benefit, which he derived from antimony, may depend on the tendency to pulmonary affections that is said to be a frequent occurrence in the Dublin-hospital.—We find nothing very particular in the remarks which are made on the remaining remedies. Like most other practitioners who are guided by the result of their own experience in opposition to preconceived hypothesis, the author appears to have gradually adopted more of the depleting and less of the stimulating practice; to have given up bark and wine, and to have substituted yeast, if an anti-putrescent were required, or purgatives and topical bleeding.

The particular details of Dr. Stoker's practice are stated in seventy-four cases of idiopathic and twenty-one of symptomatic fever, which are transcribed at full length, and contain a daily report of the symptoms and treatment. They occupy more than half of the volume; and, although it might be wished that some

some method could be devised by which the information that is to be obtained from them were concentrated into a smaller bulk, they must be regarded as of considerable value. In general, we think that the practice is judicious, and that it preserves a due medium between the extremes of stimulation and depletion. If Dr. Mills, who followed in many respects a different plan, was as much more successful as he appeared to be from the perusal of his book, we should suppose that some peculiar modification of the epidemic existed, at the time when he saw it, which might justify his more free use of the lancet.—Perhaps Dr. Stoker's prescriptions are not sufficiently simple, especially when regarded as intended for hospital-practice; in which case the constitution and habits of the patients do not require much refinement, and economy should be considered by the prescriber.

ART. V. *The Field of Waterloo*; a Poem. By Walter Scott, Esq. 8vo. 5s. sewed. Longman and Co.

FEW things are more amusing than the unconscious air of innocence with which an author confesses that, for the first time as he supposes, he has committed a fault which in reality has become a part of his very nature by long and repeated habit. Who among our readers will fail to smile, when he hears Mr. Scott pleading as an apology for the imperfections of the *last* of his poems, 'that it was composed hastily?' Assuredly, the elaborate and patient and painful composition manifested in all Mr. Scott's former works,—the long intervals which elapsed between the publication of each of them,—the time and polish bestowed on their language and their versification,—all these excellent characteristics of this author render it a matter of surprize and sorrow that he should have been betrayed, even by the attractions of a 'short tour on the Continent,' into 'a hasty composition'!!

To "leave jesting awhile," we are glad to receive another poem from Mr. Scott under any circumstances. We shall not consider the poetical dignity of versifying contemporary history, but we shall congratulate him on having a second time availed himself of a handsome opportunity of making his talents subservient to a national purpose. The profits of his poem of "The Vision of Don Roderick" were devoted to the Portuguese fund, and those of the present are intended for the Waterloo-subscription.

Entering at once on the field of battle we shall present our readers with some extracts from various parts of the poem, and intersperse them with our own occasional remarks:

'Pale

'Pale Brussels! then what thoughts were thine,
When ceaseless from the distant line
Continued thunders came!
Each burgher held his breath, to hear
These forerunners of havock near,
Of rapine and of flame.
What ghastly sights were thine to meet,
When, rolling through thy stately street,
The wounded shew'd their mangled plight
In token of the unfinish'd fight,
And from each anguish-laden wain
The blood-drops laid thy dust like rain!
How often in the distant drum
Heard'st thou the fell Invader come,
While Ruin, shouting to his band,
Shook high her torch and gory brand!—
Cheer thee, fair City! From yon stand,
Impatient, still his outstretch'd hand
Points to his prey in vain,
While maddening in his eager mood,
And all unwont to be withstood,
He fires the fight again.

'"On! On!" was still his stern exclaim;
"Confront the battery's jaws of flame!
Rush on the levell'd gun!
My steel-clad cuirassiers, advance!
Each Hulan forward with his lance,
My Guard—my chosen—charge for France,
France and Napoleon!"
Loud answer'd their acclaiming shout,
Greeting the mandate which sent out
Their bravest and their best to dare
The fate their leader shunn'd to share.
But He, his country's sword and shield,
Still in the battle-front reveal'd,
Where danger fiercest swept the field,
Came like a beam of light,
In action prompt, in sentence brief—
"Soldiers, stand firm," exclaim'd the Chief,
"England shall tell the fight!"

'On came the whirlwind—like the last
But fiercest sweep of tempest blast—
On came the whirlwind—steel-gleams broke
Like lightning through the rolling smoke,
The war was waked anew,
Three hundred cannon-mouths roar'd loud,
And from their throats, with flash and cloud,
Their showers of iron threw.
Beneath their fire, in full career,
Rush'd on the ponderous cuirassier,

The

The lancer couch'd his ruthless spear,
And hurrying as to havock near,
The Cohorts' eagles flew.
In one dark torrent broad and strong,
The advancing onset roll'd along,
Forth harbinger'd by fierce acclaim,
That from the shroud of smoke and flame,
Peal'd wildly the imperial name.

'But on the British heart were lost
The terrors of the charging host;
For not an eye the storm that view'd
Changed its proud glance of fortitude,
Nor was one forward footstep staid,
As dropp'd the dying and the dead.
Fast as their ranks the thunders tear,
Fast they renew'd each serried square;
And on the wounded and the slain
Closed their diminish'd files again,
Till from their line scarce spears' lengths three,
Emerging from the smoke they see
Helmet and plume and panoply,—
Then waked their fire at once!
Each musketeer's revolving knell,
As fast, as regularly fell,
As when they practise to display
Their discipline on festal day.
Then down went helm and lance,
Down were the eagle banners sent,
Down reeling steeds and riders went,
Corslets were pierced, and pennons rent;
And to augment the fray,
Wheel'd full against their staggering flanks,
The English horsemen's foaming ranks
Forced their resistless way.
Then to the musket-knell succeeds
The clash of swords—the neigh of steeds—
As plies the smith his clanging trade,
Against the cuirass rang the blade;
And while amid their close array
The well-served cannon rent their way,
And while amid their scatter'd band
Raged the fierce rider's bloody brand,
Recoil'd in common rout and fear,
Lancer and guard and cuirassier,
Horsemen and foot,—a mingled host,
Their leaders fallen, their standards lost.'

This is, perhaps, "the *marrow*" of the poem: but, as we by no means think that it is the only fine passage in it, we shall endeavour to present our readers with a few "*pickings from*

from the bone." First, however, we must observe on the above extract, that, when the author talks of the French soldiers meeting

'The fate their leader shunn'd to share,'

the words must form an imputation of cowardice on Bonaparte; and this imputation is conveyed with equal clearness in several subsequent passages, where he is taunted with not following the Grecian and Roman custom of self-devotion on the field of battle. Waiving for the present all discussion of a point which, it appears to us, nothing but the violence of national or rather personal antipathy could ever have questioned,—we mean the courage of a complete soldier of fortune, the idol of French troops for many years,—we would ask Mr. Scott how these passages in his text agree with that in his notes, in which he disclaims all intention of intimating that 'Napoleon shewed the least deficiency in personal courage'? Such an impression must be made on the mind of the reader, as far as the author can make it; particularly when he adds, 'it is no less true that report has erred in ascribing to Bonaparte any desperate efforts of valour for the recovery of the battle.' Mr. Scott may have had local opportunities of obtaining information; and we have no wish but for the accuracy of historic facts. We cannot, however, understand how it happened that the gallant Marquis of Anglesea advanced so near to the person of the French Leader, if that Leader was not in an exposed situation; nor how the numerous reports which we have heard, of his being intermingled with our troops on many occasions during the battle, can be reconciled with the statements of the poet. We remark also some inconsistency in complaining, as it were, of Bonaparte for not dying at Waterloo,—in crying out, as the Imperial Guard are *said* to have done,

"Oh that he had but died!" *

with many more expressions of the same tendency,—and then, as by a sort of second thought, discovering that Bonaparte, by continuing to live, might repent of his sins, and gain a nobler conquest than he ever had done, in the victory over his own passions. These recondite truths, which evidently did not strike Mr. Scott at first, during the heat of his anxiety to complete the military career of our enemy in so glorious a way as by a death on the field of battle, are beautifully touched in the

* How does this agree with the repeated stories of dying soldiers still exclaiming *Vive l'Empereur!* and with the well-authenticated fact, as we believe, of many of the wounded prisoners expressing joy at the safety of the Emperor?

following

following stanza: — so much better does the poet succeed when he puts a common-place into poetry, than, as we conceive, in accuracy of historical statement or consistency of moral reflection:

'Yet, even in yon sequester'd spot,
May worthier conquest be thy lot
Than yet thy life has known;
Conquest, unbought by blood or harm,
That needs nor foreign aid nor arm,
A triumph all thine own.
Such waits thee when thou shalt controul
Those passions wild, that stubborn soul,
Which marr'd thy prosperous scene: —
Hear this — from no unmoved heart,
Which sighs, comparing what THOU ART
With what thou MIGHT'ST HAVE BEEN!'

We shall here introduce some strictures which it is necessary to make on detached portions of the little work before us; in order that we may be enabled to leave the remaining quotations (which demand insertion) unincumbered by any such criticism, and in full effect on the mind of the reader.

Allowing the rhimes of *wind* and *behind* in the first stanza, we cannot tolerate those of *fall* and *canal*, though the Scotch pronunciation of the latter word would destroy the objection; and such dissonance as

'*Placed close within Destruction's scope*'

is inexcusable in so short, and even in so confessedly 'hasty a composition.'

A hill, gently sinking into a valley, compared to the '*folds of Beauty's veil*,' is a very happy example of a simile without similarity: while

'Not the most *timid maid need dread*,'
'*Nor fosse, nor fence, are found*,'

are instances of that *monotonous cacophony*, to which we have often in vain objected in Mr. Scott's versification.

'Far other harvest-home and feast,
Than claims the boor *from scythe releas'd*,'

is part of a comparison, or rather contrast, very successfully instituted between the apparent and the real cause of the devastation in the field of Waterloo: but the idea is pursued too far, and the boor *from scythe releas'd* exhibits a ludicrous example of Mr. Scott's favourite omission of the article or the pronoun.

The image, which follows, of Death '*sending out a summons of his own to the bloody banquet*,' intended, doubtless, to be the summit

summit of the sublime, strikes us in the form of the ridiculous; and indeed we are here strongly reminded of an early burlesque on some of Mr. Lewis's or Mr. Scott's own poems, perchance, in the Tales of Wonder, where "Grim, King of the Ghosts," is described as inviting a large party to sup with him:

"Away flew the cards to the north and the south,
Away flew the cards to the east and the west."

Leaving our readers to decide on the parallelism of the passages, we turn to a simile which is sufficiently like to its object, but is disfigured by one of Mr. Scott's quaint or obsolete phrases:

'The British host had stood
That morn 'gainst charge of sword and lance,
As their own ocean-rocks *hold stance*,
But when thy voice had said, "Advance!"
They were their ocean's flood.'

We have next to celebrate a very choice specimen of the bathos. The Duke of Wellington is properly told that nothing can give him so much satisfaction as the consciousness of having fought in a just cause;

—— 'not a people's just acclaim,
Not the full hail of Europe's fame;
Thy Prince's smiles, thy state's decree,
The ducal rank, *the garter'd knee*.'

In the ungracious sort of *ex post facto* invitation to England which the poet gives to Bonaparte, he says many things not remarkable for their courtesy. He did not probably foresee the lavender-coloured window-curtains, and the green pantaloons, which would be provided for him by our hospitality. On the contrary, he adds, 'Come, *howsoe'er*'—even although as great a *sans-culotte* as ever; or, according to the Methodist preacher's invitation,

"Come dirty, come beastly, come ragged, come bare,
You can't come too filthy, come just as you are."

The last stanza, or rather division, of the poem contains a false supposition, or prophecy, or whatever it may be. The author, in his extravagant fondness for his own subject, declares it to be possible that Cressy, Agincourt, and Blenheim, should be forgotten, but as to the towers of Hougomont, and the fields of Waterloo, they must be immortal. This is not doing justice to Wellington, but absurd injustice to Edward and Henry and Marlborough.—The phrase of 'stricken drum,' (p. 37.) is not warranted by usage in the sense of a drum beating. The *stricken deer* is the *wounded* deer.

We now insert one of the quotations before promised:

'Look

'Look forth, once more, with soften'd heart,
Ere from the field of fame we part;
Triumph and sorrow border near,
And joy oft melts into a tear.
Alas! what links of love that morn
Has War's rude hand asunder torn!
For ne'er was field so sternly fought,
And ne'er was conquest dearer bought.
Here piled in common slaughter sleep,
Those whom affection long shall weep;
Here rests the sire, that ne'er shall strain
His orphans to his heart again;
The son, whom, on his native shore,
The parent's voice shall bless no more;
The bridegroom, who has hardly press'd
His blushing consort to his breast;
The husband, whom through many a year
Long love and mutual faith endear.
Thou can'st not name one tender tie
But here dissolved its reliques lie!
O when thou see'st some mourner's veil,
Shroud her thin form and visage pale,
Or mark'st the matron's bursting tears
Stream when the stricken drum she hears;
Or see'st how manlier grief, suppress'd,
Is labouring in a father's breast,—
With no enquiry vain pursue
The cause, but think on Waterloo!

'Period of honour as of woes,
What bright careers 'twas thine to close!—
Mark'd on thy roll of blood what names
To Britain's memory, and to Fame's
Laid there their last immortal claims!
Thou saw'st in seas of gore expire
Redoubted Picton's soul of fire—
Saw'st in the mingled carnage lie
All that of Ponsonby could die—
De Lancy change love's bridal-wreath,
For laurels from the hand of Death—
Saw'st gallant Miller's failing eye
Still bent where Albion's banners fly,
And Cameron, in the shock of steel,
Die like the offspring of Lochiel;
And generous Gordon, 'mid the strife,
Fall while he watch'd his leader's life.—
Ah! though her guardian angel's shield
Fenced Britain's hero through the field,
Fate not the less her power made known,
Through his friends' hearts to pierce his own!

'Forgive, brave dead, the imperfect lay!
Who may your names, your numbers, say?

'What high-strung harp, what lofty line,
To each the dear-earn'd praise assign,
From high-born chiefs of martial fame
To the poor soldier's lowlier name?
Lightly ye rose that dawning day,
From your cold couch of swamp and clay,
To fill, before the sun was low,
The bed that morning cannot know.—
Oft may the tear the green sod steep,
And sacred be the heroes' sleep,
Till Time shall cease to run;
And ne'er beside their noble grave,
May Briton pass and fail to crave
A blessing on the fallen brave
Who fought with Wellington!'

After the poem of Waterloo, properly so called, is concluded, we have another 'Conclusion,' or 'Excrescence,' of a very poetical nature, in the stanza of Spenser. This, we think is the best specimen of Mr. Scott's writing in so much nobler a style than there is room to display in the octosyllabic measure; and the complimentary address to our country which it contains is highly deserved: though we cannot, in spite of all our gravity, resist a smile at the old sign-post allusion of St. George and the Dragon.

'Stern tide of human Time! that know'st not rest,
But, sweeping from the cradle to the tomb,
Bear'st ever downward on thy dusky breast
Successive generations to their doom;
While thy capacious stream has equal room
For the gay bark where Pleasure's streamers sport,
And for the prison-ship of guilt and gloom,
The fisher-skiff, and barge that bears a court,
Still wafting onward all to one dark silent port.

'Stern tide of Time! through what mysterious change
Of hope and fear have our frail barks been driven!
For ne'er, before, vicissitude so strange
Was to one race of Adam's offspring given.
And sure such varied change of sea and heaven,
Such unexpected bursts of joy and woe,
Such fearful strife as that where we have striven,
Succeeding ages ne'er again shall know,
Until the awful term when thou shalt cease to flow.

'Well hast thou stood, my country!—the brave fight
Hast well maintain'd through good report and ill;
In thy just cause and in thy native might,
And in Heaven's grace and justice constant still.
Whether the banded prowess, strength, and skill
Of half the world against thee stood array'd,

Or

Or when, with better views and freer will,
Beside thee Europe's noblest drew the blade,
Each emulous in arms the Ocean Queen to aid.

'Well art thou now repaid — though slowly rose,
And struggled long with mists thy blaze of fame,
While like the dawn that in the orient glows
On the broad wave its earlier lustre came;
Then eastern Egypt saw the growing flame,
And Maida's myrtles gleam'd beneath its ray,
Where first the soldier, stung with generous shame,
Rivall'd the heroes of the wat'ry way,
And wash'd in foemen's gore unjust reproach away.

'Now, Island Empress, wave thy crest on high,
And bid the banner of thy patron flow,
Gallant Saint George, the flower of chivalry!
For thou hast faced, like him, a dragon foe,
And rescued innocence from overthrow,
And trampled down, like him, tyrannic might,
And to the gazing world may'st proudly show
The chosen emblem of thy sainted knight,
Who quell'd devouring pride, and vindicated right.

'Yet 'mid the confidence of just renown,
Renown dear-bought, but dearest thus acquired,
Write, Britain, write the moral lesson down:
'Tis not alone the heart with valour fired,
The discipline so dreaded and admired,
In many a field of bloody conquest known;
— Such may by fame be lured, by gold be hired —
'Tis constancy in the good cause alone,
Best justifies the meed thy valiant sons have won.'

We observe a certain degree of similitude in some passages of Mr. Scott's present work to the compositions of Lord Byron, particularly his Lordship's Ode to Bonaparte; and we think that whoever peruses 'The Field of Waterloo' with that ode in his recollection will be struck with this new resemblance; — although it is not indeed the first occasion on which we have remarked it. We allude principally to such passages as that which begins,

'The Roman lore thy leisure loved,' &c. p. 27.;

and to such lines as

'Now, see'st thou aught in this lone scene
Can tell of that which late hath been;'

or

'So deem'st thou, so each mortal deems
Of that which is from that which seems;'

lines, by the way, of which we cannot express any very great admiration. This sort of influence, however, over even the

principal writers of the day, (whether they are conscious of the influence or not,) is one of the surest tests of genius, and one of the proudest tributes which it receives.

ART. VI. *Reports of the late John Smeaton, F.R.S.*, made on various Occasions, in the Course of his Employment as a Civil Engineer. 3 Vols. 4to. 7l. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

MANY years have elapsed since we had occasion to notice the first volume of these Reports, published by Faden in 1797. (See M. R. Vol. xxvii. p. 194. N.S.) At that time, a second volume was promised, which it was then supposed would contain all the remaining Reports of Mr. Smeaton: they have, however, at length, made their appearance in three volumes; and three volumes of more importance have certainly not for a long time been presented to the British public. They are equally honourable to the professional character of their celebrated author, and to the liberal and disinterested views of Sir Joseph Banks and the Society of Civil Engineers, through whose joint efforts they have received their present form.

We are told in the preface that

'The Society learnt that Sir Joseph Banks had, for a considerable sum, purchased all the manuscripts, designs, drawings of every sort, and all the papers of Mr. Smeaton, from his executors and representatives; with a conditional obligation, that if all or any of these papers should be published, and profit should arise from the publication, such profit or advantage should be made over to the said representatives, for their own use. This was a most liberal engagement on the part of Sir Joseph Banks; and as his avocations, in all the walks of science and natural history, are so extensive, it was proposed to him, and most handsomely acquiesced in, that the Society should undertake to perform the task of publishing the Reports only, with the condition thereto annexed; and that the loss, if any, should be defrayed by themselves, as well as that the profits, if any, should go to Mr. Smeaton's representatives.

'In February, 1795, four gentlemen stepped forward for this purpose, who, together with Sir Joseph Banks as one, and at the head of it, under the denomination of a Special Committee, have agreed to perform this service, such as it is, to the public; and to do it at their own risk, though not to their advantage, as above mentioned.

'This Committee consists of

'Sir Joseph Banks, Bart., Knight of the Order of the Bath, President of the Royal Society, &c. &c.
Captain Joseph Huddart.
William Jessop, Esq.
Robert Mylne, Esq., and
John Rennie, Esq.

'The

'The Reports, only, were the great object of this Society, and of their Special Committee. These, they thought, would be of the greatest use to the profession, to teach actual and practical knowledge; as well to conceive advice and opinions given, as to convey them, with perspicuity and energy, to others.'

In our former notice of the first volume of these Reports, our remarks were principally directed to that part of it which contains an account of the life of the author, and the interesting anecdotes given in continuation of it by his daughter. It now, therefore, remains for us in the present article to examine the publication as it relates to his professional character as an engineer, in which capacity no man ever enjoyed a higher degree of celebrity, nor was ever any one more justly intitled to the consideration and esteem which he acquired.

When we consider the variety and importance of the works that fall within the province of an engineer, as they relate to the vast expences with which they are attended, and to the security of property and lives depending on their skilful execution, this will be allowed to be a profession of the greatest utility in every polished and commercial state, and in none perhaps of so much as in our own. The situation of England, surrounded on every side by the ocean, with the consequent necessity in many cases of defending our lands and property from its encroachments, and of protecting our harbours and rivers against its deposits and accumulations, requires very frequently the advice and assistance of an experienced professional man of this description; and he on whom we can depend for pointing out the shortest, cheapest, and most effectual mode of accomplishing that which the case may demand, is doubtless a valuable member of society. It is not, however, in this particular only, that the Civil Engineer is called to exercise his talents for the benefit of his country; his profession will be found of equal or greater moment, whether we regard it with a view to our very extensive maritime trade, which renders numerous and extensive ports, harbours, docks, &c. requisite for the safe and convenient stowage and protection of our vessels both of war and of merchandise; or whether we consider it with reference to our various and extensive manufactories, which demand every combination of powers and effects that the genius of man can conceive and execute. As depending on these, also, results the necessity of numerous inland-canals, bridges, and rail-ways, for the safe and economical transport of merchandise and raw materials from one part of the kingdom to another.

In a country, then, standing so much in need of the assistance of skilful engineers, it is somewhat remarkable that no

institution has been formed for the education of young men who are designed for that pursuit, in those branches of science on which the true principles of their art depend, viz. Mechanics, Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, Surveying, Plan-drawing, &c. These are subjects continually coming under the consideration of the practical engineer, and with them he ought to be thoroughly acquainted before he attempts to direct any important work. Mr. Smeaton, it is true, was not a profound mathematician, and yet he was a most able engineer: but we ought not hence to infer that a knowlege of the mathematics is not necessary for those who enter on this profession. Though practice and experience will undoubtedly, in many cases, supply the place of theoretical knowlege, many others also occur in which theory, if it will not wholly compensate for a want of practical skill, will be found an almost indispensable auxiliary to it. On this account, academies, or some parts of such institutions, have been appropriated in all the principal states of the Continent for the study of those branches of science which are necessary to form a complete engineer; while, in England, the whole has been left to individual talent and exertion. 'Civil engineers,' as the editor of these volumes justly observes in his preface, 'are here a self-created set of men, whose profession owes its origin not to power or influence, but to the best of all protection, the encouragement of a great and powerful nation; a nation become so from the industry and steadiness of its manufacturing workmen, and their superior knowledge in practical chemistry, mechanics, natural philosophy, and other useful accomplishments.'

From a work involving so many different topics, and a great number of them of the highest import and considerable extent, —viz. Embankments, Water-works, Construction of Bridges and Canals, Drainage, Light-houses, Protection of Harbours, Erection of Mills, the Situation and Construction of Locks, &c. &c. — it is impossible to select any extracts that shall convey to the reader an adequate idea of the entire performance. We may discover in each something peculiar, and something demonstrative of the powerful genius of the author, but little that would be interesting in the isolated state in which we should be under the necessity of presenting it to our readers; particularly since much of the merit of the publication consists in the numerous engraved plans of the several undertakings, with the estimated expences of carrying them into execution: items which are not calculated to be exhibited by abstracts, although they must render the work extremely valuable to the practical engineer. Our selections, therefore, must be considered rather as intended to illustrate the style

and

and character of Mr. Smeaton in his professional pursuits, than as specimens of his professional talents. To attempt to display the latter by partial quotations from this work would be, as Dr. Johnson has observed on a somewhat similar occasion, "like the pedant in Hierocles, who, when he offered his house to sale, took a brick in his pocket by way of specimen."

One of the most prominent traits in the character of Mr. Smeaton, in his professional capacity, was an unaffected modesty; combined, however, with a degree of unassuming confidence: two qualities which are seldom found united in such due proportions. To this feature we may add that he manifested a great degree of delicacy and liberality towards other professional men, with whom he had frequently to act in concert: of which a sample will be found in the following passages from a letter written by him to Mr. Simpson, relative to the projected water-works at Halifax:

'Sir,

'Inclosed you have a sketch of the method which I would propose for laying of the pipes of the intended water-works at Halifax, and an estimate referring thereto, which I hope will be near the matter, having spent some time in the consideration and forming thereof; however, I would not wholly rely upon my own judgment, but desire that those papers may be overlooked and considered by my ingenious friend Joseph Knight, whose natural sagacity and acquirements in these kinds of affairs will, I am persuaded, lead him to discover and point out such oversights and mistakes as I may have been guilty of, notwithstanding the care I have taken; and I must take this opportunity of desiring, that, though the gentlemen have thought proper to consult me on this occasion, I may not be considered as any bar to his merit, but rather as jointly concerned.

'It may not be amiss, however, to point out the general principle upon which I have conducted myself; and, in the first place, as the town lays very unequal in point of level, and, of consequence, a very great perpendicular pressure will lay upon the pipes, especially towards the lower parts, I have endeavoured to avoid the additional expence, that naturally would arise from proportional encrease of thickness, by taking advantage of such circumstances in the situation as have a tendency to relieve the disadvantages thereof; and, with this view, I have assigned the bores of the pipes in general considerably less than I should have done, in case the town had been more upon a level, because the declivity has a tendency to force the water through the pipes with greater velocity, and make them give as much water through a given orifice, as would be done by a larger pipe more upon a level, and with a lesser pressure upon it.

'2dly, Considering that the supply will come from above the head of the town, and that the pipe of conduct, at its first entrance into the town, must carry all the water necessary for the supply of the whole, but that in going lower down it has only the water to convey for such parts as lay still lower; of consequence, the necessary bore

of the pipe of conduct will grow less and less the further and lower it goes; but as it is a certain principle in hydraulics, that pipes become stronger in proportion as their diameters are less, when the thickness of the shell of the metal is the same, it follows, that if their bores are diminished in proportion as their perpendicular pressure is increased, the smaller pipe will be as able to sustain its weight of water as the larger will be to sustain the pressure peculiar thereto; for these reasons, instead of adding to the weight of metal as we go lower down, I have proposed the same thickness for the main all the way, and by diminishing the diameter, and consequently the weight, have added the necessary strength; by which advantage a great weight of metal will be saved, without injury to the main design. As to the branches, I have proportioned their thickness to the thickness of that part of the main which is upon the same level, regard being had to the difference of their bores; by these means every part of the system of pipes will be equally strong, with respect to the stress that will come upon it. I don't mean, however, that every part is adjusted with a mathematical exactness; for as I have allowed every part to be considerably stronger than what may be barely called sufficient, that would be not only unnecessary, but by making every yard of pipe of different bore and thickness, would be more unreasonably troublesome in the execution. That part of the main which lays between the reservoir at the Gibbet, and the back street, I have supposed of the same bore and thickness all the way, for the ease of calculation; but, in reality, I propose it to be considerably wider towards the reservoir, yet, as the pressure diminishes that way, it can be done with the same metal as the calculation supposes.'

The letter then proceeds with observations relative to the division of the town, and the situations most proper for the stop-cocks, &c.: concluding thus:

'Respecting the method of conveyance of the water from the spring to the reservoir; though I am still of opinion it may effectually be done in a gutter lined with clay and gravel; yet, considering that this gutter must be covered, and well secured from evaporation and diversion, I have, upon second thoughts, (at least for the sake of coming to an estimate,) supposed this conveyance to be in wooden pipes of four inches bore, which there is no doubt will answer, and not give the water any ill taste, as the descent from Broadby Laith to the Gibbet is great enough to give the water a rapid current, consequently its time of continuance in the pipes will probably not exceed half an hour.'

'I have only further to observe, that I have not included the purchase in my estimate, which, added to the amount thereof, will make a sum much beyond what seemed to be imagined when I was at Halifax; and, on this account, I have been the more minute, and have inclosed a copy of the amount of each particular part of the lead-work, that in case I have inserted or omitted any street which ought to have been otherwise, a proper correction may be made; and also that the whole may be submitted to examination, from whence I flatter myself it will appear that the matter is not exag-

gested. And I am, with the utmost respect to the gentlemen promoters of this scheme, Sir, your most humble servant,

'J. SMEATON.

Let some of our *minor* engineers, whose vanity is generally in the inverse ratio of their talents, contemplate the modesty and liberality exhibited in this letter, and endeavour to imitate so worthy an example.

If we were not fearful of exceeding our limits, we might make numerous quotations for the purpose of exhibiting the peculiarities that characterized either the ideas of Mr. Smeaton or his manner of expressing them: but, as we have *three quarto volumes* before us, it is necessary for us to be on our guard in this respect. We cannot, however, omit to specify another article in this volume, 'respecting the loss of grinding sustained at Tottenham mills by the leakage of the lock-gates, from the years 1778 till April 1781.'

It is an important qualification in an engineer to be able to make an estimate of any proposed undertaking with a tolerable degree of accuracy, because on this may probably depend the fortune and future prospects of those who engage in it. Still, a considerable difference is generally to be expected between the estimate and the real expenditure; and the proprietors are therefore so commonly guarded on this point, that, if it be not too wide, no real injury is sustained. There are other kinds of estimates, however, in which the utmost accuracy is required; as in such cases as the one above mentioned, where an individual had been for some years sustaining a loss in consequence of the neglect or non-performance of certain required conditions by a second party. It is seldom in such instances as these that the aggressor and the sufferer reckon on the same principles; at least they very rarely agree in their results; and the adjustment of their difference is either reserved for a court of law, or left to the award of a third party, who is supposed to be capable of appreciating the real amount of the injury sustained, and of delivering a just and impartial statement of the damages. A case of this kind occurs in the above article. Mr. Wyburd, the proprietor of the mills at Tottenham, was, from the bad state of the locks on the river, deprived of a great quantity of water, and consequently of the means of grinding so much corn as he would otherwise have been able to do. It appeared from the books of Mr. Wyburd, that, comparing the quantity of corn ground in twelve weeks of three successive years, in the summer-months, two of them before the locks were repaired, and the third afterward, he ground, on an average, thirty quarters per week more in the latter than in the two former

former years; and, consequently, that the loss sustained during this part of the year was at the above rate per week:

'Upon which (as a fact) Mr. Wyburd reasons thus: if, when we ground 85 quarters per week we lost 30, in grinding double that quantity they must have a double loss, and in a triple quantity a triple loss, and so on till they came to five times as much; so that when their grinding amounts to 5 times 85, or 425 quarters per week, their loss amounts to 5 times 30, or 150 quarters.

'The different grindings being therefore averaged thus:

1		85	lost	30
2		170		60
3		255		90
4		340		120
5	times	425		150

divide by 5) 450 (90 quarters per week will therefore be the average loss, amounting to 18 loads, which at 7*s*. 3*d*. per load, amounts to 6*l*. 10*s*. 6*d*. per week.

'Now Mr. Wyburd, in reasoning upon the fact above stated, takes it for granted, that because a greater head of water which enables them to grind *more* corn, produces also *more* leakage, he supposes them proportionable, so that when they can grind five times as much corn, there is five times the leakage; but this is a very evident mistake, for if with a 6 feet head, and suitable follow of water, they grind 425 quarters, the leakage through the same apertures will only increase beyond what it would be at the ordinary summer's head of 4 feet 4 inches by $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the whole, so that if, upon grinding 85 quarters, they lose 30, upon 425 they will only lose 36, and the average loss will not exceed 33 quarters per week, that is, 6 loads 3 quarters.

'Mr. Wyburd's mode of reasoning upon the subject, he seems himself apprehensive, if pursued to its extremity, was leading him into an incongruity, for, says he, "when we grind 500 quarters per week, we don't mind the loss of water so much," that is, though when grinding 425 they were reckoning themselves to lose, and ought to be paid for 150 quarters, amounting, at the above rate, to 10*l*. 17*s*. 6*d*. per week; yet, when they could do 75 quarters more, and, according to the same scale, would lose the grinding of 26$\frac{1}{2}$ quarters in addition, their loss would not then be worth minding.'

Having thus satisfied himself of the inaccuracy of Mr. Wyburd's estimate, Mr. Smeaton proceeds to inquire what the loss sustained really might be, from the cause stated; and, after some argumentation, he thus concludes his letter:

'Respecting, therefore, the charge of 200*l*. for two years preceding the 30th of October, 1780, no particular evidence was offered upon it, but the general one, that during all this period the lock-gates and slakers were greatly out of order; yet, since it appears that at three different times they were repaired, it is impossible to judge now what degree of loss Mr. Wyburd might suffer during that period; but

but if his own comparative idea of the matter be taken, viz. that while he was suffering 5*l.* 10*s.* per week in the period specified between the 30th of October, 1780, to the 2d of April, 1781, he was suffering at the rate of 100*l.* per annum for the two preceding years, then the yearly allowance must be reduced in the same proportion as the weekly.

	l.	*s.*	*d.*
That is, as 5*l.* 10*s.* is to 2*l.* 10*s.* 9*d.* so is 200*l.* to	92	5	5
Which, together with what was before ascertained,	38	1	3
Total for loss of water,	130	6	8

With which I am convinced Mr. Wyburd will be fully recompensed for whatever loss he has in reality sustained.

'I would only add that I would have it understood, that I have supported Mr. Wyburd's claim of reparation of injury to an individual as much as I can with justice to the Trustees as a public body; at the same time adverting, that as in the nature of the use thereof lock-gates cannot be made or kept perfectly tight for any length of time together, that a reasonable degree of leakage can be claimed by the Trustees as their right, by the same rule as they can take water for the lockage of the vessels, the mill estates upon this river being greatly benefited by the alteration of the mode of navigation from that of wears and flashes to that of cistern-locks. J. SMEATON.'

In selecting such quotations as the above, we have before stated that our intention was not so much to exhibit specimens of the talents as of the character of Mr. Smeaton; and both the articles which we have chosen are, we think, calculated to give the reader a correct idea of the probity, liberality, and modesty, which distinguished all his transactions. We shall conclude our view of the first volume by an enumeration of some of the most important parts of its contents. Among these we conceive are his Reports 'concerning the Practicability, &c. of a navigable Canal from Wilden-ferry, in the County of Derby, to King's Bromley Common near Litchfield,' and the several branches of the same; with the general estimates, &c. &c. — The report 'upon the Harbour of Christ-church,' and the several reports, estimates, &c. relative to the building of two light-houses at the Spurn-point, are also important articles; and, in particular, we would refer to the last fifty pages of this volume, on various subjects relating to the Carron Iron Works, for the most unequivocal proof exhibited in it of the profound knowlege and skill of the author as a practical engineer.

The second volume commences with Mr. Smeaton's report 'upon the Questions proposed to him by the Committee for improving, widening, and enlarging London-bridge;' 'the State of its great Arch;' 'the Water and Spur-wheels to be erected under the fifth Arch;' &c. &c. articles which will be read with nearly equal interest by the practical engineer and the man of general information.

'On

'On opening the great arch at London-bridge, by throwing two arches into one, and the removal of a large pier, the excavation, around and underneath the sterlings of that pier, was so considerable, as to put the adjoining piers, that arch, and eventually the whole bridge, in great danger of falling. The previous opinions of *some* were positive, and the apprehensions of *all* the people on this head were so great, that many persons would not pass over or under it. The surveyors employed were not adequate to such an exigency. Mr. Smeaton was then in Yorkshire, where he was sent for by express, and from whence he arrived in town with the greatest expedition. He applied himself immediately to examine the bridge, and to sound about the dangerous sterlings, as minutely as he could. The Committee of Common Council adopted his advice; which was, to re-purchase the stones of all the city gates, then lately pulled down, and lying in Moorfields, and to throw them pell-mell, (or *pierre perdu*,) into the water, to guard these sterlings, preserve the bottom from further corrosion, raise the floor under the arch, and restore the head of water necessary for the water-works to its original power; and this was a practice he had before and afterwards adopted on other occasions. Nothing shews the apprehensions of the bridge falling, more, than the alacrity with which his advice was pursued: the stones were re-purchased that day; horses, carts, and barges were got ready, and the work instantly begun, though it was Sunday morning. Thus Mr. Smeaton, in all human probability, saved London-bridge from falling, and secured it till more effectual methods could be taken.'

The succeeding articles, through nearly three fourths of this volume, relate to plans, estimates, &c. for inland-canals and rivers; and the remainder of it is occupied by various reports respecting the erection of engines, mills, and machinery of almost every description: which, accompanied as they are by numerous plates illustrative and descriptive of their construction and operation, must be of inestimable value to every man who is engaged in similar undertakings, as well as highly interesting to the general reader, because they exhibit striking examples of human ingenuity, and of the growing prosperity of British manufactories.

Volume iii. contains several reports relative to the improvement and formation of harbours; viz. those of Lynn, Wells, Aberdeen, Dundee, Dunbar, Port Patrick, Dover, Sandwich, Tinmouth, Ramsgate, &c. Works of this kind are always important, whether we look to the great expence attending them, to their magnitude, or to the purposes which they are intended to effect; which are nothing less than to counteract the operations of nature, to give laws to the ocean, to circumscribe its bounds, and to neutralize its fury. These are undertakings which require no common efforts; and it is in these more than in any that man displays the greatness of his mind. Other perform-

performances may call forth his ingenuity, but here energy, genius, and perseverance, must be combined in an eminent degree, in order to bring his labours to a successful conclusion. Of the several articles of this kind, that which relates to Ramsgate-harbour is the most interesting; it is intitled 'An Historical Account of the early Attempts towards a Harbour for the Downs, and of Proceedings inclusive of obtaining an Act of Parliament for establishing a Harbour for that Purpose at Ramsgate.' This report, which was published in 1791, was drawn up by the author after his appointment to the office of engineer to the harbour, at the request of the board of trustees, and is here also given at considerable length, occupying nearly sixty pages. Of the curious information which it contains, we afforded our readers some account in the viith volume of our New Series, pp. 388—398.

The remainder of this volume is principally occupied with reports relating to the erection of bridges, including the unfortunate one at Hexham, which is (we believe) nearly the only failure that the author experienced in the long course of his professional pursuits. The former bridge having been carried away by an unusually high flood, Mr. Smeaton appears to have been consulted as to a proper place and construction for a new bridge; and we find him giving in his plan and estimate with rather more than his usual confidence. In his letter to Mr. Donkin, he says,

'I beg leave to acquaint you that I have fully considered the construction proper for a bridge over the river Tyne at Hexham, and have carefully computed every article of expence that will probably attend the erection of it in a substantial manner, and sufficient for me to risk my credit as an artist upon it.—

'The bridge I propose to consist of nine arches, and to extend between the abutments 518 feet, and including the abutment wall, 568 feet; to be twenty feet wide over all, and about eighteen feet between the parapets. I suppose it to be gravelled over in the manner of a good turnpike road, and the length of the road over the middle arch to be thirty-one feet above the surface of the river in its ordinary state: the height of the great inundation in the year 1771, being at this place above that surface scarcely fourteen feet.'

After this confidence expressed, and doubtless felt, by Mr. Smeaton, great indeed must have been his disappointment on being informed that scarcely were his plans put into execution, when they were all frustrated by another uncommonly rapid flood, which happened in 1782, and which reduced this noble structure to a heap of ruins. The author's letter to Mr. Pickernell, on this distressing occasion, is so expressive of his feelings, that we make no apology for giving it at length:

'To

'To Mr. PICKERNELL.

'Dear Sir, 'Austhorpe, 6th June 1782.

'All our honours are now in the dust! It cannot now be said, that in the course of thirty years' practice, and engaged in some of the most difficult enterprizes, not one of Smeaton's works has failed; Hexham bridge is a melancholy witness to the contrary; yet, after all, I feel much less for honour and credit than I do for the actual loss sustained by Mr. Errington: it would give me much satisfaction if that matter were settled between him and the county. I have heard that his appearance there at the Easter sessions much inclined the magistrates to see the matter in a favourable light; but the difficulty was, how far it was in their power.

'I saw Mr. Donkin in town, who acquainted me, that he was looking at it when it first appeared to give way; his son being but just returned from the south side, to see that the small arches there were safe, which was the only part they had any doubt about. He was wondering at the possibility that any structure could withstand such extreme violence, yet not at all expecting that any thing would hurt it; and remarked that before any thing appeared to give way, the water was up to the top of the dooming of the piers up stream when it scarcely touched the bottom of the impost down stream, which makes a fall of five feet, and it was not above a couple of minutes between first perceiving the mortar dropping out of the joints of the soffit and the fall of the arch, and six more were down in half an hour, so that it was so equally guarded that in a manner it all went together. Could I have known beforehand that there was a possibility of a flood to come down so *suddenly* as to have made a fall through all those extensive openings of five feet, I should certainly never have attempted the building a bridge in that situation, as that fall would necessarily create a velocity to the water in its passage of 1100 feet per minute: a velocity that it would require the strongest sluice-floor and aprons to withstand. I am therefore clear that it has forced away the very bed of the river and all before it. The occasion of this extreme suddenness in the waters coming down, which in that respect was far greater, according to all accounts, than in the great inundation of 1771, though the total height not so great, was, doubtless, owing to this circumstance, that the afternoon before a very great downfall of snow happened, so deep as to cover the ground at an average two feet. This was immediately succeeded by a vast downfall of rain, none of which would run off, till the whole body of snow was saturated like a spunge, and then, like the bursting of a snow-ball in the fire, it would come down all at once, and that so suddenly, that the lower reaches of the river not having *time* to be filled from the upper they would be comparatively empty; and as the velocity of water depends upon its fall, or *difference* of level at any given place, and not upon its total height, the difference will depend upon the suddenness of its coming down; and this being further hurried down by a violent gale of wind at north-west, the very direction that, upon the whole, would tend to bring it down the quickest from both the Tynes, it would seem as if all the powers of nature were collected to humble my pride and yours. The news came to

me like a thunderbolt; as it was a stroke I least expected, and even yet can scarcely form a practical belief of its reality. A flood that could mount up to the top of the doomings of the piers was, however, not a small, or even middling flood, in point of height; and as every object that entangled it would moderate its rapidity, it is not improbable but that the downfall of Hexham-bridge might be the saving of Corbridge; and by the spreading gradually over the wide haughs in many places below, was not more than a moderately large flood at Newcastle. There is, however, one consolation that attends this great misfortune, and that is, that I cannot see that any body is really to blame, or that any body is blamed: we all did our best, according to what appeared; and all the experience I have gained is, not to attempt a bridge upon a gravel bottom in a river subject to such violent rapidity. I remain, your most humble servant,

'J. SMEATON.'

We must here conclude our report of this valuable publication; which it would be needless, after our preceding observations, to recommend again to the serious study and contemplation of every man who has the ambition of rising to eminence as a Civil Engineer.

Mr. Smeaton's account of his most extraordinary and most useful work, the building of the Edystone Light-house, is not contained in these volumes, but was published separately many years since, and reported in the fifth and sixth volumes of our New Series.

ART. VII. *The Miscellaneous Papers of John Smeaton, Civil Engineer, &c. F.R.S.* Comprising his Communications to the Royal Society; printed in the Philosophical Transactions. Forming a fourth Volume to his Reports. Illustrated with Plates. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE principal contents of this volume are, Descriptions of certain Improvements in the Construction of the Air-pump, and of an Engine for raising Water by Fire; Improvements in the Mariner's Compass; an Account of an Instrument for measuring a Ship's Way at Sea; Description of a new Tackle or Combination of Pullies, and of a new Pyrometer and Hydrometer; Observations of a Solar Eclipse, and of Mercury out of the Meridian near his greatest Elongation; a Discourse concerning the Menstrual Parallax, arising from the mutual Gravitation of the Earth and Moon; Observations on the Graduation of Astronomical Instruments, and several Experimental Inquiries connected with Mechanical Subjects; viz. 'the natural Powers of Water and Wind to turn Mills and other Machines, depending on a circular Motion;' 'an experimental Examination of the Quantity and Proportion of mechanic Power,

Power, necessary to be employed in giving different Degrees of Velocity to heavy Bodies from a State of Rest;' and 'new fundamental Experiments on the Collision of Bodies.'

Our opinion of this volume is very different from that which we have given of the other three. We are sorry, indeed, that the friends of Mr. Smeaton deemed it necessary or proper to draw these essays out of the Transactions in which they were deposited, in order to attach them to the other parts of his valuable works, since they contain little that is calculated to add to the fame of the author or to the edification of the public. The improvements in different philosophical instruments, which occupy a considerable portion of this volume, are nearly all superseded by more recent and superior constructions; and the same may be said of his memoir relative to the division of astronomical instruments. His experiments, also, on what are termed the mechanic powers, &c. — at least his philosophical deductions from them, — are by no means calculated to establish the reputation of Mr. Smeaton either as a philosopher or a mathematician. As a practical engineer, he stood unrivalled: but, as a man of science, he scarcely attained to mediocrity. The only valuable paper in the volume, and this might have been added as a supplement to one of the preceding, is that which contains his 'experimental Inquiry concerning the natural Powers of Wind and Water to turn Mills and other Machines depending on a circular Motion.' It may be supposed that this paper supplies useful practical maxims and results, which the author had many opportunities of confirming in the long course of his professional practice, and as such it is a desirable acquisition to the civil engineer; this article, therefore, we would have reserved: but the rest might safely have been left to an undisturbed repose in the ponderous mass from which they have been taken.

ART. VIII. *Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting, &c. selected from the Correspondence of the Bath and West of England Society*, Vol. XIII.

[*Article concluded from our last Number.*]

PART II. of this volume is introduced by a short preface, announcing some alteration of plan for the purpose of exhibiting a minute annual account of the proceedings of the Society, and of enabling it to present the public every year with a volume, or at least *a part* of a volume. Learned bodies, and gentlemen associated for the advancement of science and general

neral improvements have often found it convenient to publish their Transactions in parts; and perhaps the cravings of curiosity are better consulted and the zeal of ingenious men in every department is more stimulated, by a slender annual supply, than by a cargo of information for which they must wait three or four years.

Following the preface, is a sketch of the proceedings of the annual meeting in 1813; at which Sir B. Hobhouse, after having been unanimously re-elected President, adjudged the Honorary Premium of the Bedfordian Gold Medal, which had been offered for the best *Essay on the Commutation of Tithes*, to the Rev. James Willis, of Sopley, near Ringwood, Hants: who, no doubt, was highly pleased with this honour, and whose name was intitled to a place in the minutes of the proceedings. We did not, however, expect that this Society was ambitious of resembling certain convivial meetings at the Crown and Anchor, by putting it on record that 'at dinner this rev. gentleman's health was drank with great respect and *eclat*,'—we conclude, with three times three, and an insufferable clattering of glasses.

Arranged under different heads, is an account of the distribution of many premiums and bounties to sundry claimants; among which we were delighted to find premiums to *servants for long faithful servitude*. To this branch of rewards, we wish to invite the attention of the public, because it is notorious that the moral character of servants has greatly degenerated. Of the praise of being good and faithful, few now are ambitious, and instances of long servitude are very rare. To go from place to place, or from *situation* to *situation*, (as the servants term it,) is their prevalent habit, and attachment to masters and mistresses seems quite out of the question with them. With this disposition, they are not anxious for any more character than such as will be a passport to a new place, and care not how soon they are dismissed. If some methods could be devised for curing or even checking this growing evil in society, we should rejoice. The awarding of premiums to individuals for long and faithful servitude is a proof, indeed, of the esteem in which such servants are held: but the benefit to society would be increased in an incalculable degree, if we could render the generality of servants ambitious of such rewards.—We comment on this subject, for the purpose of inducing others to take it into serious consideration. Could not our old and truly public-spirited friend Mr. Matthews favour us with an essay on the principles and conduct of modern servants?

After the class of MECHANICS, which is rather meagre, we are presented with a list of new members; and, last of all, with the substance of the President's speech, delivered at table after

his health had been toasted by the company at dinner. Here, as on similar occasions, flattery and facts are very ingeniously blended, and the orator shews his address both in the compliments which he distributes and in the observations which he makes. Sir Benjamin is proud of the good opinion, the support, the approbation, and the kindness of the assembly; they are cordials to his heart; and he hopes that the gentlemen will be pleased not only with his expressions of gratitude, but with the favuorable report of the Society under his superintendance.

'Speaking of the Society, and the numerous advantages which had flowed from it, he said, that as it had now existed for the space of 36 years, no proof of its beneficial tendency could be wanting. Had it not been erected on the most solid basis, it would long, ere this time, have been annihilated.—Institutions, having no foundation in reason and sound principles, lived, comparatively speaking, but for a day. The subscribers, seeing no adequate return in utility for the funds which they contributed, dropped off, one by one; and the establishment fell into gradual decay, and final ruin: the very contrary had been the lot of this Society. The subscribers had numerously increased year after year; admission into it had been sought by the powerful, the wealthy and the wise; similar institutions of the most respectable nature had desired to correspond with it; and distant nations acknowledged their obligations for its communications.'—'In addition to this argument in favour of the utility of the Society, arising from its long existence and general estimation, he might state, he observed, that to invite agricultural experiments by means of premiums, and to communicate the results to the world, was one of the great ends of the Society; and that numberless instances could be produced to shew that it had not failed of success.'

The President next adverts to several subjects and circumstances which very naturally attracted his notice, and concludes with some pertinent remarks on the importance of agriculture, and on the service rendered to it by this Society; which, with the whole of his speech, were received with marks of applause. Well, indeed, may the members applaud, since Sir Benjamin places them 'amongst the best benefactors of the human race.' In justice to the speaker, we must add that this address is a fair specimen of after-dinner-oratory.

The first article which occurs, and which is highly eulogized in the President's speech, is the before mentioned *Prize Essay on the Commutation of Tithes*, by the Rev. James Willis, of Sopley, Hants. This essay has for its motto a line in Juvenal, which contains an important truth neatly expressed, viz. "*Nunquam aliud Natura, aliud sapientia dicit;*" and which, in many discussions and inquiries, is worth remembering. It is certainly desirable to receive a matured dissertation on the

Commutation of Tithes from the pen of a clergyman, who may be supposed to watch over the interests of our ecclesiastical establishment, while he consults the good of the public at large; and the mode in which Mr. Willis introduces the subject is so truly manly and ingenuous, that our readers cannot fail to applaud it:

'I hope it will not be considered as too presuming in any individual, particularly in an *ecclesiastic*, to offer his sentiments, founded on fact and on experiment, on the great evil the agricultural world now complain of, namely, *tithes*; when the experience of the writer, as well as that of his parishioners, can mutually congratulate each other of having enjoyed for many years much comfort and advantage in the labours of the field, by generally adopting a *commutation of tithes*, in the stead of taking them in kind. When the *good* of the whole empire is the point to be considered, no opinion or fact, I humbly presume, ought to be withheld from public investigation, that may tend in any way to advance the interest of the *whole*. The clergy, as well as the laity, are bound to contribute any information they may respectively possess, and both patriotically make some personal sacrifice for a permanent benefit to their country. Individually feeling much happiness from the many advantages arising from the *commutation* of tithe, I must beg leave to submit them with much deference to the judgment of your honourable Society, entreating that indulgence which the difficulties of such a subject will naturally require. Deeply impressed with this idea, I have entered the *arena* with no small anxiety, and the motive alone must apologize for any errors or defects. The following observations may be supposed by some to come but strangely from the pen of a clergyman, holding a *tithe estate*; but I cannot sacrifice the *truth* in complimenting any system of our establishment, however ancient the institution, by giving it excellencies which it has not, or by concealing the deformities or incoveniences which it has. I consider *tithes*, in their *present* shape, as most highly prejudicial to all the interests of agriculture, and consequently to the welfare of my country; and at this moment more particularly so, because now the exigencies of the state absolutely require a most spirited extension of the culture of our soil, to feed the wants of an increasing population.'

Mr. Willis having been thus fully convinced by extensive observation that tithes, taken in kind, have operated as a check to improvements and to a due course of husbandry, he is very solicitous to promote a commutation; and he is not deterred from stating his plan for this purpose by those senseless alarmists who vociferate the danger of innovation:

'What (says he) is the history of man, but a succession of innovation and amendment, attributable solely to the blessed light of the Gospel? I mean not any innovation that destroys, but that which adds to the happiness of a people; that innovation, which softens the rigour of any antiquated maxim which bears hard on the labours of the people; that innovation, which would give new life and vigour to

our national agriculture, and to which all the other powers in Europe at present are directing their energy and skill.'

From his brethren, the clergy, this essayist expects little opposition: but he is aware that lay-impropriators may possibly be hostile to his views; and he therefore reminds them of the nature of their tenure, in order to check in them any arrogant assumptions over the clergy:

'When we consider by what means the original proprietors came into possession of their impropriations, we conceive they would have much less reason of complaint than the clergy, who are the only labourers in the vineyard, if some *legislative* alteration *was* immediately to take place, and even legally *enforced* in the form of some commutation; as these very impropriations which they possess, are the fruits of a violent *change* of the constitution, and no less than the plunder of the church, wrested from the clergy by the rapacity of Henry the Eighth. This dissolution of the monasteries very unjustly enriched the favourites of the king, from that period until now, at the expence of the people, and gave rise to a tax (a monstrous and abominable evil to future generations) denominated the *poor-rate*, which at this day is little less than six millions a year. It is not necessary to digress farther by considering minutely the merits or demerits of the *Dissolution*, as it would protract these pages far beyond the intentions of the writer; indeed the circumstance has been mentioned, merely to shew that my brethren *alone* (and certainly most unjustly so) should not incur the displeasure of the farming world, whilst the greater part of the revenues of our church are in the hands of laymen. It is well known by agriculturists who have to do with *both* in the arrangement of their tithes, that the clergy who have the *least* share in this ecclesiastical provision, are often more liberal and more considerate to their tenants than the laity, who have by far the *largest* portion, and do nothing but *receive* it.'

We applaud the writer for speaking out on this subject; and though we cannot, any more than Mr. W., digress on the several topics which this passage suggests, they are surely of no small importance.

All preliminary points having been duly considered, the essayist at last comes to his plan, which is very simple, and which is capable of adoption in most parishes. The plan, indeed, is nothing more than an account of the mode of arrangement adopted by Mr. W. and his parishioners:

'The churchwarden brings me a moiety of the rent of my tithes every Lady and Michaelmas-day. The rent of the whole parish is levied on my parishioners by a *tithe-rate* made at a public vestry, and sanctioned by their universal consent. I have left the whole regulation, as to the annual quantum of value, wholly to themselves: but in other cases it may be ascertained by a regular survey, or at a valuation *to be levied in money*, according to the variation of the market price; and when I have proposed a rise according to circumstances, they have

have always voluntarily regulated the rate, and invariably set the real value of my living to the *times* price. I ascribe much facility in this simple arrangement by honourably and confidently leaving the *whole matter of arrangement entirely to themselves.*'

Should the principles here stated be deemed worthy of the attention of Parliament, Mr. W. is of opinion that the outline of a bill founded on them could with facility be sketched:

'Suppose a living to be 500l. per annum, ascertained by a survey, or any other mode of valuation, to meet the fluctuating price of grain, let the average of the *gazetted* prices for every year fix the quantum to be paid in lieu of tithes. The churchwardens should then be authorised to levy, by a half-yearly rate, the moiety of the living, 250l. on the occupiers of all lands within the parish; but always regulating the tithe-rate on the average of the *gazetted* prices. The churchwarden must be armed with similar powers as the collectors of the *poor-rate* or *land-tax*, and themselves must be subject to certain penalties in default of not paying the titheholder, twenty days after Michaelmas and Lady-day, a moiety of the *tithe* so regulated as above mentioned. Vestries may be called to aid the churchwardens in their duty; and in case of any dispute, the Petty or Quarter-Sessions, as in the appeal of the *poor-rate*, shall have full authority to determine. A responsibility must be attached to some person to levy the rate, and pay the titheholder at a certain time; and none so proper as the churchwardens, who are more immediately connected with the affairs of their respective churches. No provision is made for the churchwardens to compensate them for their labour, because they are naturally landholders, and the advantage accruing to them and their fellow-parishioners from such a regulation, must be considered as sufficient and ample amends. The land and property-tax, as is usual, to be paid by the owners; all other taxes by occupiers of the tithes.

'I cannot conceive, that if such a plain, simple regulation was to pass into a law immediately, how any titheholder could object to it, that wishes well to himself and to his country. The rise and fall of the value of his tithe is provided for by *the rise and fall of grain.* His income is brought to him without trouble or the slightest vexation; and the unpleasantness of making so many bargains with as many individuals, and taking the *crops in kind*, which is still more irksome to all parties, would be completely done away.'

Motives of delicacy, it is surmised, may operate with Parliament to prevent their interference with the antient property of the church: but the author reminds us that this delicacy has not always influenced them; and that, in order to encourage the growth of *madder*, the Legislature did actually step in to *controul* and *limit* the mode and quantum of tithe. After all, it is some consolation to Mr. W. that the parties interested can settle the commutation of tithes without the interference of Government, if they are so disposed.

Throughout this treatise, the judgment and moderation of the writer are so conspicuous, that every reader must allow him to be intitled to the Bedfordian Gold Medal; and we hope that his suggestions will meet with the practical attention which they merit.—Mr. W. is fond of Latin quotations, but he does not always give them correctly. The line from Juvenal at p. 258. has *abest* for *habes*.

Hints on Planting; by Sir R. C. Hoare, Bart.—The object of this short paper is to establish, by a statement of facts, a principle which few now will be disposed to controvert, that on poor soils planting is more profitable than the growth of corn. Sir Richard's exemplification is curious. In the year 1758, about three-quarters of an acre of very shallow soil had been planted, chiefly with trees of the fir-tribe, by his predecessor at Stourhead. This plantation had been neglected: but, in 1813, ninety-two trees, worthy of the hatchet, were found on this spot. On being cut down, they produced ninety tons of measured timber; which, at 4l. per ton, amounted to 360l.; yielding at the rate of 8l. 14s. 6d. per acre, or 6l. 10s. 10d. for the three quarters. The Baronet wishes it to be remarked that the spot, though poor, was sheltered; and that shelter is very necessary to the rapid growth of Scotch and Spruce Firs.

A Miscellaneous Essay on Vegetation and Tillage, and many Defects still seen in our general Practice; accompanied with a Description of a Plough for a new Mode of Culture; and of a Land-Roller, more effectual, it is believed, than any in use, for the more equal Compression of an uneven Surface. By Lewin Tugwell, Esq.—This essay is of considerable extent, occupying the largest portion of the remainder of the volume. We notice its length, however, not for the purpose of applauding but rather of censuring Mr. Tugwell's prolixity, since he appears to belong to the Spin-text family, and to have the gift of bringing together the most irrelevant topics. This is indeed a *miscellaneous* essay,—a true *omnium-gatherum* lucubration. Not only have we hints on vegetation, agriculture, and agricultural machines, but something on almost every other subject. If we have no mention of the longitude, we are conducted to the antipodes; and, if Saturn's ring be not introduced, we have in lieu a plentiful shower of meteoric stones. Sunday and Bible-Societies, the Slave-trade, the Small-pox, and Vaccination, are not forgotten; mortar, gun-powder, and atheistical notions, are happily blended with 'the *genii* of soils' and 'atmospherical possessions;' and hydrogen and oxygen with 'the *sceptic* properties of the air.' (P. 331.) Rarely have we met with so rambling a performance; and we are surprised that the writer did not listen to the suggestion of the Committee which recommended condensation

densation previously to its being inserted in these Transactions. Mr. Tugwell is, no doubt, a man of observation and long experience, and many of his suggestions are judicious, though we suspect that he is a little conceited; be this, however, as it may, he has not a happy knack of writing. Yet his occasional quaintnesses amuse us, and so do his metaphors. The expression of 'wearing lands down to a *thread-bare* state' may be allowable: but when, in prosecuting the metaphor, he talks of 'recloathing their *nude* particles,' we could not refrain from a smile. His philosophy also, in the following passage, (or rather his illustration of that philosophy,) will probably entertain the reader:

'In a certain case, on a barren tract that had been sown year after after year during a long period successively with oats, till in the common phrase it would not bear a new one for an old one, and then no longer ploughed, had been often remarked a small spot of a very superior cast, producing grass abundantly, whilst nothing of the kind was seen elsewhere around it; and which, after many conjectures respecting its cause, it was at last developed by an elderly person recollecting that, forty years before, a single waggon load of dung, merely to unload the carriage, had been thinly scattered over its surface. This one would conjecture (although it may not be right to rely much on analogy) is illustrated by the operation of the *crassamentum* or cruor of the blood in the animal system, which, considered as a *vinculum*, or bond of union for its other components, may become a medium or vehicle for its caloric, and thus preserve an uniform temperature through the whole of its mass; and which we may suppose is one operation of the mucilage in both animal and vegetable manures, while it further constitutes in earths a ground for their fermentation, attraction of atmospherical properties, and stimulus for the extension, and pabulum for the growth, of the vegetable fibre.'

Mr. T. refers also to a discovery of M. Saussure, which he introduces at p. 338.

'It was a valuable discovery, in the present age, of the younger Saussure, and which was afterwards confirmed by the experiments of Bertholet and others, that oxygen (that almost universal agent in the operations of nature) is absorbed from the atmosphere only by mould formed *of decomposed and decomposing, organic, substances;* while *pure, original, elemental earth,* he asserts, *has not* that power; and further observes, that the vegetable or organic earth is found to contain a greater proportion of carbon, than belongs to the plants from which it proceeds.

'From this discovery is seen the necessity for replenishing pure original earth with all the recrements and decaying substances of both the animal and vegetable kingdoms; such only having access and affinity to, and associating with, the properties of the great universal elaboratory, the atmosphere.'

So much for Mr. T.'s theory of vegetation. As to his suggestions for the improvement of agriculture, they are often

excellent, and we wish that they had been exhibited "unmixed with baser matter." We are of opinion that the splitting plough and divided land-roller will be found useful implements; though, without the plates, we cannot afford such a description of them as will be intelligible to our readers.

Report of the Committee for inspecting Swedish and other Turnips, in Claim of Premiums offered by the Bath and West of England Society. — This report states the average acreable amount of a crop of Swedish turnips, growing at Pyt-house farm, at 38 tons 13 cwt. 64 lbs; and at Berwick farm a crop of drilled purple Norfolks at 31 tons 1 cwt. 2 qrs. 24 lbs. These were grown by Mr. Bennett of Pyt-house; whose general farming system so pleased the Committee, that they requested an account of it, and in consequence we are presented in the following article with *A Letter from John Bennett, Esq. on his Mode of Farming*, March 14. 1814. A very clear report of the system of proceeding on both his farms is here given by Mr. Bennett, and we wish that we had space for the insertion of his letter entire: but, as we must be content with an extract, we shall select that portion of it which details his management of the turnip-husbandry:

'I fallow my wheat stubbles as deep as the soil will admit of before Christmas, and cart all the dung from my yards, as fast as it accumulates, into the fields, and stack it in large heaps, in readiness for my turnips. As early as the land will work in the Spring, the fallows are run back, and harrowed down fine: these operations should be done in dry weather. It is then ploughed by a swing plough (it cannot be done by a two-wheel plough) into single boat-ridges, twenty-seven inches from centre to centre of each ridge. The dung is then carted on the ground, to the amount, as near as I can ascertain, of twelve two-ox cart-loads per acre. My carts measure 4 feet 6 inches by 3 feet 9 inches, and 16 inches high, besides six such boards at the side, and are filled as high as they will bear. The dung is spread by women or girls in the intervals between the ridges, and the ridges are immediately split by the plough, and the dung covered up: by this operation a ridge is formed exactly over the dung. The seed is then drilled by a double drill, which is drawn by one horse or ox, and deposits the seed immediately over the dung on the tops of the ridges. In doing this, care must be taken that the drill is set to the proper width, as the ridges sometimes vary from being thrown up by different men. To do this I measure about twenty ridges, and, having found the average width, set the drill accordingly. It is desirable to have the rows of turnips at equal distances, that the horse-hoe may be worked to advantage. As soon as my turnips are up, I always strew lime-dust or coal-ashes over the young plants, and if possible in the dew of the morning, or when the leaves are wet with rain; this sometimes stops the fly, at the trifling cost of about 1s. per acre. As soon as the plants are in rough leaf, a small

small swing plough is used to pare away the earth from both sides of the plants, going as near to them as possible. The women next begin hoeing them with nine-inch hoes, leaving the plants from nine to ten inches asunder, and perfectly single; this is always done at once; for it is impossible to thin turnips evenly when drilled, if they are done ill at the first hoeing. I have the rows looked over again by the women, for the purpose of pulling up the weeds that escaped the first hoeing. A few days after the hand-hoeing, the horse-hoes are set to work, by which the intervals are well pulverized, the soil prevented from cracking, and consequently the turnips secured from being burnt up in dry weather. This horse-hoeing is repeated three or four times, as may be necessary; but I do not earth them up till late in the autumn, when the leaves of the turnips begin to drop. The double mould-board plough is then used, which earths up the turnips so as nearly to cover them.'

The subsequent information must not be withholden:

'I have long been in the habit of preserving a large quantity of turnips, which are grown on my field in preparation for wheat, by keeping them between sheep-hurdles pitched at six feet from each other; thereby forming a long stack, piled as high as is necessary to form a roof; the same is thatched over, but left open at the sides for the air to pass through; the more airy the situation, the better. The green must not be cut off too close, so as to injure the crown of the turnip, for a turnip will either shoot out, or decay immediately; should the crown be injured, it will decay. In a stack of this kind, turnips will grow slowly the whole of the winter, and may be preserved till the end of April; though I generally consume mine much earlier, and then stack my Swedish turnips between the same hurdles, and keep them till the end of May. I have only to add, by way of observation, that experience has taught me that the distance before mentioned for drilling the rows of turnips, and for having them in the rows, is that which will produce the greatest acreable produce. It is best to drill full two pounds of seed to an acre; for when thick in plant, turnips are not so subject to be destroyed by the fly; they cannot be hoed too early, if the hoers can distinguish them from the weeds.

'I believe the best manure for turnips (except yard dung and vegetable ashes) to be fresh earth. I generally contrive to raise yard dung enough to manure the whole of my turnip land; and it is unwise to sow more land than can be supplied with manure. Ten acres of land, well dunged, will produce more weight of turnips than twenty in an impoverished state, and will cost but half the expence in labour. I consider my turnips as the most profitable crop; in proof of which I would inform you, that nearly all the oxen and cows which were exhibited in my stalls are sold completely fat; they never had any food but turnips, excepting two months feed on after-grass, and a very small quantity of hay with the turnips.'

Mr. B. adopts the stall-feeding system so strongly recommended by Mr. Curwen.

Report of the Committee for conducting the Ploughing Match for the Premiums of the Bath Society, 1814.—Though we have already noticed

noticed two exhibitions of this kind, we must not silently pass over this paper, which records the victory of a swing-plough *drawn by two oxen*, and states the ploughman, in the above experiment, to be 'a stout lad of only thirteen years of age; which proves the objection "that oxen are not to be managed by boys" to be incorrect.'

On Corn Laws. — Respecting the arguments offered in Parliament, and in numerous pamphlets, in favour of the Corn-bill recently passed, the superintending Committee of this Society do not *feel it prudent* to offer an opinion; would it not, then, have been prudent to have suppressed this paper?

On the Larch-Blight. — This blight seems to be *no blight*; and the alarm excited about the downy appearance on some Larch-trees, in a letter from Mr. Matthews inserted in the Bath Chronicle, which is denominated 'a disease of a most inveterate and alarming nature,' turns out, like many other alarms, to be a matter of no consequence. The Larch is a valuable tree, but it is not *igni impenetrabile lignum.*

On the Management of his Farm in the Vale of Glamorgan. By John Franklen, Esq.—After Mr. F. has detailed his method of farming, he concludes his letter with the following observations, in which he expresses the universal feeling of farmers at the present moment:

'As to the corn trade, it must be known to every practical agriculturist, that the great increase in the price of labour, and the increase of taxes, make it impossible for the grower to render corn at the present reduced price; so that less corn will be raised, and we shall pay a bounty for importation. Therefore I hope Parliament *will disregard the interested clamours of the consumers in cities and towns, (who know not the farmer's expences,) and wisely determine what is best for the general welfare.* I think that a commutation for tithe, a general inclosure-bill, and leases, would all be so.'

Upon the Commutation of Tithes. — Mr. Willis very properly made a reference to the case of lay-rectors in the passage which we quoted from his essay: (see p. 276.) but, though he touched on this subject, he had not placed it in every point of view. Still, it is evident that from lay-impropriators the great obstacle to a general commutation for tithes is likely to arise; and, when the anonymous writer of the paper before us remarks that 'it is not a mere *commutation* of tithes, it is *annihilation* that is required,' we suspect that he is, or is likely to be, a lay-rector. We agree, however, with him that the commutation of tithes is not a mere clerical question, and that the property of those who claim a perpetuity in tithes must not be sacrificed to those who have only a life-interest in them.

A paper

A paper intitled *Remarks on the foregoing Essay*, by Mr. Matthews, *our old friend*, very temperately comments on the style of the above letter, and places the subject in a clear point of view. Mr. M. first states the arguments of those who contend that *tithes* do not operate as an impediment to the farmer, and then sensibly combats them:

'The arguments for that fallacious opinion are in substance these:

'1. That tithes are a part of the *value* of the land; only payable to a second person, instead of the land-owner.

'2. That if the land were let tithe-free, the tithe would still be included in the rent, and the taker of the land must pay *one-fifth*, or some proportion, the more to his landlord, on that account.

'3. That therefore it is the same thing to the farmer, whether, in the first instance, he pay 50s. per acre to the land-owner, or 40s. to him, and 10s. to the tithe claimant.

'This would be sound argument, if the whole business lay within those general terms of calculation; but the contrary is too evident to need the formality of proof.

'By taking his whole bargain at a fixed annual sum, the farmer has only one party to account with, only one interest to satisfy; and whatever be the return for his industry, skill, and expence, he knows nothing of the uncertain drawback of a tithe-claimant during the whole term of his lease. But where a farm is liable to tithe, the claimant has the option of compounding, or not; and it is not to be expected, as the law now stands, that he should forego his rights, and not fix his own arbitrary terms. It is true that in some instances the power is far from being abused; but exceptions are frequent. The lands of the country are of various quality; and to bring them *all* into the most productive state of which they are capable (which is the grand business of agriculture, where population *demands* it,) vastly different modes of culture, and proportions of expence, should be employed. Instances are perpetually occurring in which the first expences of a valuable scheme of improvement would be so great, so disproportioned to a *first* return of crops, that if a tithe-claimant should take in kind one-tenth of the produce, without having contributed any part of the cost, the farmer, instead of being a gainer, must be a considerable loser. The public indeed would be a gainer, through the medium of *both* cultivator and tithe-taker, who *together* would bring the whole improved produce into the market; but the party who had furnished the labour, ingenuity, and cost, must content himself as well as he could. It is in vain to say, as sometimes has been pretended, theoretically, that the cultivator will generally sell his remaining share at so much the higher price, as to reimburse himself. In order to do this, the share taken in tithe, or at least the extra produce, must first be annihilated, or taken out of the market. It may be said that this is supposing an extreme case; but it would be no uncommon one, if farmers were not naturally restrained by prudential motives; and extreme cases, numerously multiplied, must make an extreme aggregate grievance!'

Extract

Extract from the Report of the Committee of the Highland Society, in Scotland, on Weights and Measures; by Mr. Matthews.—This extract is judiciously made, and we wish that the object of the report whence it is extracted could be obtained, viz. a simple and uniform system of weights and measures throughout the British empire. With this paper is given 'a Sketch of a Plan for establishing Uniformity of Weights and Measures throughout Scotland, by Professor Playfair, of Edinburgh;' after which Mr. M. adds:

'Thus far Professor Playfair: who well deserves the thanks of the Committee of the Highland Society, for so able an effort of genius and application. One is almost tempted to wish that there could be a complete overturning of all the varieties of British weights and measures, for the sake of introducing uniformity on such simple and scientific principles. It is very much like a satire on human genius and energy, that, century after century, all efforts should be unavailing to correct that confusion on the subject of weights and measures, which seems to be growing, instead of lessening, continually: not that the evil, in a moral point of view, is demonstrably so great as some writers have supposed; it may be chiefly regarded as troublesome and disgraceful to an enlightened nation.'

On the Management of Coppice Woods. By Thomas Davis, Esq.—The observations of this gentleman on the management and cutting of coppice or underwood indicate a practical knowlege of the subject. To prevent the decay of these underwoods, to which from their very mode of treatment they are liable, (being cut down about every fourteenth year,) Mr. D. recommends attention to *the production of roots;* to cut with a smooth and clean diagonal stroke, *as close to the ground as possible;* and to fill up vacancies by laying down some branches of the stools. He differs on some points from his father, who in the 7th vol. of these papers published an Essay *On the Management of Woods*, &c. When coppice-wood is compared to "*pollard trees growing under ground,*" Mr. Davis junior wishes it to be remembered that this comparison is correct as to *the roots of trees*, but not as to their heads. He urges also the necessity of draining, by deep and well appointed trenches, all wet places intended for the growth of timber or underwood; and of securing the young shoots of both from the bite and tread of cattle.

The last paper contains a list of the premiums and bounties adjudged by this Society, at the annual meetings since the publication of the preceding volume; together with a general recapitulation, by which it appears that, exclusively of gold and silver medals, the Bath and West of England Society, from its commencement in 1777 to 1809, had expended in premiums for the encouragement of agriculture, &c. 3857*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.*

Thus have we presented our readers with a glance at the contents of this volume, which fully proves the Society, from whom it proceeds, to be alive to the object of the institution; and we should have pleasure in thinking that the notice which we have taken of it in our pages may in any degree contribute to expand the fame, to stimulate the exertions, and to advance the prosperity of so laudable an association.

ART. IX. *Collections from the Greek Anthology;* and from the Pastoral, Elegiac, and Dramatic Poets of Greece. By the Rev. Robert Bland and others. Large 8vo. pp. 526. 18s. Boards. Murray. 1813.

WE seldom take up the Greek Anthology without something like a feeling of melancholy. Two or three volumes now comprise all the elegant trifles in which the Grecian lover praised the charms of his mistress, or complained of her cruelty, or mourned her infidelity; the higher strains in which the moralist lamented the brevity and uncertainty of life; and the sepulchral inscriptions which commemorated "the name, the years, and the excellences of the departed." For those compositions which remain, we are indebted to the doubtful taste of selectors of comparatively modern ages; and, while we have to thank them for preserving to us many pieces of exquisite beauty, it is also impossible not to assert the utter deficiency of any admissible claims to admiration in a large proportion of the poems contained in the Greek Anthologies. This is not altogether attributable to a want of taste in the compilers themselves: since, for instance, the age in which Agathias flourished (that age of which Gibbon has said that then the Italians only "did not totally neglect their antient literature," and when expressions of equally frigid commendation might with propriety be applied to the few other places in which even the shadow of literature existed,) ought to form his ample excuse for incorrectness of judgment on matters of taste.

If we look at the decline and fall of eloquence, which had gradually decayed from the thunder of Demosthenes, till, in the age in question, men learnt to be energetic by rule, and the rhetorician took place of the orator, we shall not expect much either from the poet or the selector. It is true, indeed, that one study is sometimes cultivated to the neglect or the prejudice of another: but, when we have a tolerable number of specimens in any species of literary composition, they will furnish us with an almost unerring test of the degree of excellence which we may hope to find in others from the same age and the same people; — at least, we shall thus be enabled

to

to appreciate their taste. Accordingly, with the decay of eloquence, we find a great alteration in the fashionable poetry; and, to use the language of the preface to the work before us, 'when Agathias in the eighth century attempted to give sound to the lyre of Greece, it returned a feeble tinkling to the touch, before it lay mute for ever.'

Still, however, we recur with never failing relish to the Greek Anthologies; because the variety and beauty of many of the compositions, the natural flow of language, and the happy ease and elegance so conspicuous in others, constantly supply new sources of pleasure. If we seldom meet with any thing that is particularly striking in point of idea, we should remember that this does not seem to have been an aim of the Greek epigrammatists. To express common feelings in a concise yet elegant style was the height of their ambition; and prejudiced indeed must he be who denies that in this respect they have completely succeeded: yet, considering the fashionable style of poetry in the present day,—and remembering that the majority of our race of poetical readers are in a high wrought and almost unnatural state of feeling, from a long familiarity with narrations of a painful interest, and delineations of the strongest and blackest passions that shake the human breast,—we should scarcely expect the lighter graces of Grecian poetry to be received with much attention. He whose sympathy is excited only by the despair of the lover of Thyrza when *eternally* separated from the object of his adoration, or by the wild ravings of Sir Eustace Grey, is not very likely to take much interest in the complaint of lovers who express no determination of refusing comfort from a second mistress, if the first should prove unfaithful. Even to those whose feelings are of a tenderer cast, and who listen with more pleasure to the pathos of Gertrude of Wyoming or the sufferings of Wilfrid, we can hardly recommend a species of poetry of which the characteristic is elegant brevity, which is frequently tender, but rarely or never pathetic. We wish to be understood as speaking only of the Grecian epigrams. To the readers of the second class, we cannot doubt that the present volume will hold out very powerful attraction; since it contains copious extracts from those parts of the elegiac and dramatic writers of Greece which are most remarkable for their powerful appeal to the tenderer passions. It seems to us not very easy to give the English reader an adequate notion of the style and manner of the Greek epigram. In order to prevent misapprehension from the modern meaning of the word *epigram*, it has been repeatedly stated that neither point nor turn nor "fetch of wit" is necessary to its existence:—but this is merely describing what it *is not*;

not; and the poems which have been compared with it would scarcely serve better to explain its nature. Mr. Bland, for instance, says in his preface that the French madrigal is the *facsimile* of the Greek epigram. Both are certainly easy: but who does not feel the wide difference between the ease of simplicity and the ease of pertness?—and we must think, notwithstanding some exceptions which we shall notice in the course of this article, that pertness is too often the characteristic of the French minor poems. Favart is perhaps as free from this defect as any French poet whom we could name; and few writers can boast of more elegance than Florian. Every body remembers his

"*Si l'ame est immortelle,*
L'amour ne l'est il pas?"

On the subject of love, indeed, he has peculiar delicacy: but still, if we wish to see love expressed in the language of passion, and consequently in the language of nature, we must apply to the writers of Italy. The French seem to have made love for the sake of giving vent to their pretty conceits; while all that is spirited or brilliant in the Italian seems to owe its birth to the vehemence of the author's passion. Petrarch, whose writings are generally cited in opposition to this latter remark, seems to us to afford the strongest confirmation of it. Metastasio's minor poems, too, appear to us (in the language of our own Shakspeare) to "give an echo to the very seat where love is throned;" and, on other subjects, the little conclusions to the scenes in his operas may for spirited ideas and happy expressions bear a comparison with the Greek Epigrams, or any similar works of antient or modern times. If, however, we were to say all that we feel with regard to Italian poetry, we should never have finished. "*Retournons à nos moutons.*"

We need not now give any account of the various selections of Greek poems and of their compilers, since we entered fully into that subject on the first appearance of Mr. Bland's publication, which was then anonymous. (See Vol. liv. N. S. p. 270. Number for December 1807.) Indeed, if the present volume had been merely a second edition, which it is not even styled, we should not have resumed our notice of it: but it may very fairly be regarded as a new production, because the additions to it are more considerable than the whole of the former work, and embrace a much wider extent of authors. It is also differently divided; and the tales and original poems, which were subjoined to the former volume, form no part of this. It may now be considered as intended to give to the English public a knowlege of many of the principal Grecian poets; and our readers will therefore pardon us if we devote a considerable number of our pages to an examination of it.

The

The first of these translations which we shall notice is very remarkable as a peculiarly happy imitation of the style of our earlier poets; and it has the additional merit of being very tolerably faithful to the original, except in the second couplet of the second verse, where the metaphor is altered:

'*Absence insupportable.* M.

'When I left thee, Love, I swore
Not to see that face again,
For a fortnight's space, or more:
But the cruel oath was vain;
Since, the next day I spent from thee
Was a whole year of misery.

'Oh! then, for thy lover pray
Every gentler Deity,
Not in too nice scales to weigh
His constrained perjury.
Thou, too, oh! pity his despair!
Heaven's rage, and thine, he cannot bear.'

[*From Paulus, the Silentiary.*]

The idea in the second verse is very well expressed in a selection from the Greek Epigrams published in 1789:

"To all those gods, with fond regret,
Full oft my suppliant knee I bow.
May they my perjured oath forget,
And you, dear girl, my idle vow."

Great ease of versification characterizes the following lines, also from Paulus:

'*Love not extinguished by Age.* B.

'For me thy wrinkles have more charms,
Dear Lydia, than a smoother face!
I'd rather fold thee in my arms
Than younger, fairer nymphs embrace.

'To me thy autumn is more sweet,
More precious than their vernal rose,
Their summer warms not with a heat
So potent as thy winter glows.'

Mr. Bland has quoted and translated, in the notes on this poem, the well-known lines of the Maréchale de Mirepoix addressed, with a lock of her *grey hair*, to the Duc de Nivernois, and his answer, which we remember to have introduced to our readers on some former occasion.

We have pleasure in transcribing the subsequent translations, which unite in general great fidelity with a truly poetical vein of language:

'*The*

'*The votive Chaplet* *. (*From Asclepiades.*) B.

' Curl, ye sweet flowers! ye zephyrs, softly breathe,
Nor shake from Helen's door my votive wreathe.
Bedewed with grief, your blooming honours keep,
(For those who love are ever known to weep,)
And, when beneath my lovely maid appears,
Rain from your purple cups a lover's tears.'

'*The Secret divined.* (*From Quintus Moecius.*) H.

' Why art thou sad? Why thus disordered flow
Those lovely tresses o'er thy breast of snow?
Why hangs the tear on Lesbia's clouded eye?
In stranger-arms does faithless Cleon lie?
In me a sovereign remedy you'll find,
A pleasing vengeance for the jealous mind.
Silent you weep: your secret is explain'd,
Your eye speaks volumes, tho' your tongue is chain'd.'

'*The Lover's Wish.* (*Uncertain.*) M.

' Oh! that I were some gentle air,
That, when the heats of Summer glow,
And lay thy panting bosom bare,
I might upon that bosom blow?

' Oh that I were yon blushing flower,
Which, even now, thy hands have press'd,
To live, tho' but for one short hour,
Upon the Elysium of thy breast!'

Every one remembers Shakspeare's conceit on the same subject, which begins thus:

" On a day, (alack the day,)
Love whose month was ever May," &c.

Having bestowed so ample a measure of praise, we are sorry to be obliged to remark that the Epigram called '*The Deserted Lover*' (from Meleager) is unsuccessfully translated. It stands thus:

' " Witness, thou conscious lamp, and thou, oh night,
(No others we attest,) the vows we plight!
Guard ye our mutual faith!" we said, and swore,
She endless love, and I to roam no more.
But oaths are scattered o'er the waves; and thou,
Oh lamp, bear'st witness to her alter'd vow!' (M.)

The translator has here omitted one of the most material circumstances of the Epigram, viz. that the fickle swain boasted of his perjury. The original is:

Νῦν δ' ὁ μὲν ὄρκια φησὶν ἐν ὕδατι κεῖνα φέρεσθαι·
Λύχνε, σὺ δ' ἐν κόλποις αὐτὸν ὁρᾷς ἑτέρων.

* The translator should have cited, in his Illustrations, Tibull. Eleg. 2. 14. and Lucret. iv. 1172.

Literally, "But now he says that those vows are scattered in the waves, and you, oh lamp, see him reclining on the bosom of other mistresses." How much more spirited is this than the tame expression quoted above?

We wonder that, in the great fondness of the translators for French madrigals, they omitted to insert in the illustrations a very pretty one that seems to be borrowed from the passage in "England's Helicon" which they have quoted. Our readers will be obliged to us for adding it.

> "*J'avois promis à ma maitresse*
> *De l'adorer jusqu' au tombeau.*
> *Sur la feuille d'un arbusseau*
> *J'avois écris cette promesse:*
> *Mais il survint un petit vent —*
> *Adieu la feuille et le serment.*"

Ovid has expressed the same idea with his usual beauty:

> "*Atque iidem venti vela fidemque ferent.*"

Faults such as we have just noticed must be expected in so large a number of translations: but we have weightier charges to bring; and, when the translators have given such clear proofs as those which we have cited, (which we could increase by a hundred others) of the possibility of preserving the beautiful simplicity of the original and combining with it an ample share of modern ornament, it is really provoking to see them in other instances adding to, altering, and frittering away the strength of some of the most beautiful of the Grecian epigrams. One of the most singular instances of their love of amplification may be found in p. 10., where a slight epigram of Agathias is swelled into three stanzas of six lines each. We translate literally the first and the last couplets of the original, in order that our readers may compare them with the version in the volume before us.

1. "Young men do not suffer so much as we weak-minded women."

3. "We are not allowed to see the light, but are kept concealed in our houses, pining away with gloomy cares."

Now hear the magnificent strains of the translator.

> 1. 'Go, idle amorous boys!
> What are your cares and joys,
> To love that swells the longing virgin's breast?
> *A flame half hid no doubt,*
> *Soon kindled, soon burnt out,*
> *A blaze of momentary heat at best!'*
>
> 3. 'Whilst we, poor hapless maids,
> Condemn'd to pine in shades,

And

And to our dearest friends our thoughts deny,
Can only sit and weep,
While all around us sleep,
Unpitied languish, and unheeded die.' (M.)

Another instance of this fault is the translation of a sprightly little epigram of Philodemus, the original of which is literally as follows: "My Philinne is little and brown, but * softer than parsley, and more tender in her body than a lamb. She is more enchanting when she speaks than the cestus of Venus, and, though she grants every thing, yet does not wish for frequent returns. May I preserve my attachment to her, being such as I have described, O golden Venus, till I find a better!" This is put into a dress which is in the style of Mr. Anacreon Moore's wardrobe:

1. 'My Helen is little and brown, but more tender
Than the cygnet's soft down, or the plumage of doves,
And her form, like the ivy, is graceful and slender;
Like the ivy entwined round the tree that it loves.

2. 'Her voice — not thy cestus, oh goddess of pleasure,
Can so melt with desire or with ecstacy burn;
Her kindness unbounded, she gives without measure
To her languishing lover, and asks no return.

3. 'Such a girl is my Helen — then never, ah! never,
Let my amorous heart, mighty Venus, forget her,
Oh grant me to keep my sweet mistress for ever,
— For ever — at least, till you send me a better.' (M.)

Our readers will make their own comments on the first verse; and of the last we shall only observe that its amplification is very remote from the concise *naïveté* of the original. We are sorry to be obliged to extend our censures to the following very beautiful lines from Sappho:

'*On an illiterate Woman.* B.

1. 'Unknown, unheeded, shalt thou die,
And no memorial shall proclaim,
That once beneath the upper sky
Thou hadst a being and a name.

2. 'For never to the Muses' bowers
Didst thou with glowing heart repair,
Nor ever intertwine the flowers
That fancy strews unnumber'd there.

* The Greek word is ἀλος, which sometimes has the sense of "one having caused pain," which from the word σιλινον we suspect to be the case here.

3. 'Doom'd

3. ' Doom'd o'er that dreary realm, alone,
Shunn'd by the gentler shades, to go,
Nor friend shall soothe nor parent own
The child of sloth, the Muses' foe.'

All the lines printed in italics are the pure coinage of the translator's fancy: — a fancy, too, no more like the nervous brevity of Sappho's imagery and expression, than we to Hercules. The two concluding verses of the first stanza may perhaps be founded on the word σέθεν: but to the two in the last stanza we are at a loss to assign origin or meaning. We do not know whether our classical readers share our enthusiasm about this fragment, which we have always considered as the most spirited of the few Λειψανα of the poetess of Lesbos. Beautiful as the translation which we have just quoted undoubtedly is, it wants the compression and consequently the fire of the original. If the following lines were our own, we should not perhaps be vain enough here to insert them: but, as they owe their birth to the pen of a friend whose taste we highly esteem, we have no hesitation in giving them as an admirable version of this delightful fragment:

In death unheeded shalt thou be,
And no memorial speak of thee.
Thou can'st not call the roses thine,
That 'mid Pierian bowers entwine;
But on the darksome, Stygian ground,
Unknown and nameless shalt thou stray,
And where unhonour'd shades are found,
Shalt bend thy loveless cheerless way.

We wish that either of the translators had happened to see Mr. Blomfield's conjecture, (Mus. Crit. vol. i. p. 29.) which displays all the usual taste of that excellent scholar, viz. that the eighty-first fragment of Sappho in his collection was part of the same poem with the above lines; since we think that they might have expressed with great effect the "*non omnis moriar,*" the proud exultation of the Lesbian poetess, that her name was not to go down to

"The vile dust from which it sprung,
Unwept, unhonoured, and unsung,"

but that future ages should listen with delight to her strains, and hang in raptures over the

——"*commissi calores*
Æoliæ fidibus puellæ."

A more extraordinary specimen is yet to come. Mr. Bland has arranged it under the class of amatory poetry, with the title of 'The All-Sufficiency of Love;' which place and name he might

might with equal justice have bestowed on any half-dozen lines from his friend Mr. Hodgson's translation of the fifth satire of Juvenal: the *real* subject of the *Greek*, like that of the satire which we have mentioned, being neither more nor less than—Parasites! We know that Brodæus has exhibited, as a reading of the last line of the epigram, και κλαω Μιλιᾳ, και γελαω Μιλιᾳ; and that Grotius, moreover, — it is not more strange than true, — was satisfied with the reading, and rendered the passage "*Ast ego tam Miliæ rideo quam lacrymo:*" — but *aliquando bonus dormitat Homerus.* This reading would never bear the sense assigned to it, even if that sense were not totally foreign from the subject of the piece. We are persuaded that an author making so abrupt a transition would have expressed the pronoun in the first person, especially as συ occurs in the preceding verse: but, be this as it may, it is evident that, to express the meaning of Grotius's Latin, he *must* have used the words ΣΥΓκλαιω and ΣΥΓγελαω. — Γελαω Μιλιᾳ means, if it means any thing, laughing *at* the lady.

We will now give Mr. Bland's *translation*; and, when the reader has sufficiently admired its closeness, we beg to call his attention to the neatness of the rhymes.

(*From Amianus.*)

'Sell not thy sacred honour for a *feast*,
Nor live with rich men a polluted *guest*;
Shame to the parasite, who stoops so *low*,
To *lower* or brighten by his patron's *brow*—
Slave tho' I am, my fetter Love beguiles,
—I smile or weep, as Lesbia weeps or smiles.'

The '*illustration*' is too amusing to be omitted: — '"*N'ayant sujet ni de pleurer ni de rire, mais riant et pleurant par compagnie*" — *I cannot now recollect where this sentence occurs.*' If Mr. B. had recollected that it occurs in Brunck's note, as a translation of the last line of the epigram, he would, perhaps, have had some hesitation in giving the version which we have just quoted.

In such a volume as this, with so many claims to our unqualified approbation, we would not be "extreme to mark what is done amiss:" but this child of the Muses is too good to be spoiled, and we must be excused if we do not "spare the rod." We extract the following lines from p. 112.

'*On a Vine.* (*From Philip.*) B.

'Who has that unripe cluster torn,
And thrown, with wrinkled lip, away,
And left the parent vine to mourn
Her fruit to barbarous hands a prey?

'May Bacchus on the spoiler turn
His fiercest rage, and bitterest smart,
His head with fever'd phrenzy burn,
With agony distract his heart.

'For hence some transitory pleasure
The child of misery might have found,
Burst into song of wildest measure,
And quaff'd oblivion of his wound.'

'Lycurgus,' says Mr. Bland, in his remarks on this poem, 'had offered indignities to Bacchus, and was afflicted by him with phrenzy. In the Greek, the master of the vineyard calls on the god to punish those who had torn and bruised his unripe fruit, in the same manner as he had redressed his wrongs on Lycurgus.' Let the learned reader turn to the Greek, according to the translator's reference to Brunck, (Philip, 68. ii. 230.) and say whether he can find a single trace of it in this 'song of wildest measure.' Those who do not understand the original will hardly credit us when we assure them that it is an imprecation on a sour vine, which had set the poet's teeth on edge, praying that it might be demolished as effectually as those that were torn up by Lycurgus.

We will return to the first section of this work, intitled 'Amatory,' in order to make one more extract, which has equal merit with our first quotation:

'*Exhortation to Pleasure.* (*Rufinus.*) H.

'Now, as we rise from the reviving wave,
Braid we our locks, my Prodice, with flowers;
Drain we deep bowls of wine, and wisely save
From slow pac'd Care Youth's transitory hours.
For withering Age upon our path attends,
Joys drop by joys, and Death the picture ends.'

Passing the class *Convivial*, we come to that which is termed *Moral*. It opens with translations of the two well known poems setting forth the pains and pleasures of human life, and which may fairly be called οἱ αντιπαλοι. The great fault of these translations is excessive inversion, which appears to have arisen from a wish for fidelity, and is therefore rather extraordinary after the specimens which we have given of the small regard hitherto paid to this little virtue. We subjoin the second, from Metrodorus:

'Whatever path of life you chuse to tread,
Praise and wise deeds the active senate yields;
At home is rest, to crown your grateful bed,
Great nature leads her graces o'er the fields;
The sea invites with golden views of gain,
And riches spread in foreign lands your fame;

If

If poor, you unobserved can want sustain,
Content with penury unallied to shame:
If married, blest and honoured is your state,
If single, you are blest because you're free,
The father joys, no cares the childless wait!
In youth is strength, in grey hairs dignity.
Then false the lay that bids thee hate to live,
Since every form of life can pleasure give.' (M.)

The ensuing lines, though very paraphrastic, as the translator acknowleges, have great feeling:

'*Home.* (*Leonidas.*) B.

'Cling to thy home! If there the meanest shed
Yield thee a hearth and shelter for thy head,
And some poor plot, with vegetables stored,
Be all that heaven allots thee for thy board,
Unsavoury bread, and herbs that scatter'd grow,
Wild on the river-brink or mountain-brow,
Yet e'en this cheerless mansion shall provide,
More heart's repose than all the world beside.'

This subject, in the hands of a true poet, would be invaluable: yet it has been very sparingly touched; and indeed we cannot expect any thing on this head from the Grecian and Roman writers. The female sex were in their days on so different a footing from that which they now maintain, and were so generally considered as made rather for man's use than for any nobler purpose, that none of the delights of that home "which plighted love endears" could be known in the cheerless mansions of Rome or Athens. The cold-hearted decree, which forbad woman to be placed on an equality with the nobler sex, carried its own punishment with it. In those gloomy ages,

"Ne'er did the smile of social love repay
With mental light the melancholy day."

The philosopher might declaim to admiring crowds beneath the shades of Academus, and the orator might display the noblest powers of eloquence in the Forum: but, when the transient hour of his triumph was over, he was destined to return to his silent and solitary home, and to find there no heart that glowed at his fame, rejoiced at his joys, or sorrowed at his griefs.

It was long even in the latter ages before woman attained her proper place in society. Jeremy Taylor, who was almost a poet, never speaks of the female sex but in terms of contempt, and refers to them for instances of all that is weak in mind or body. Milton (such is the difference between the author

and the man) appears to have been the first who judged of woman as she deserved *; and nothing can be more exquisitely touching than he has made the truly conjugal union of our first parents: but, since the days of Milton, till those of Campbell, who has atoned for the deficiency of his predecessors, no poet has thought of describing the quiet joys of home. Let those who fancy that subjects of intenser interest are more adapted for poetic decription look at the second canto of "The Pleasures of Hope," and at "Gertrude of Wyoming," and surely they will not be tempted to quarrel with us for having made this digression on what is to us, we confess, a very favourite subject of contemplation.

We cannot satisfactorily conjecture the reasons which, when one division of the work is expressly appropriated to *Sepulchral Inscriptions*, induced the editor to insert any of that class under the head *Moral*. He will probably say that they contain some moral lesson: but we would ask which of the Greek sepulchral epigrams do not? The following are certainly in the true spirit of the original:

'*The Death of Cleombrotus.* (*From Callimachus.*) M.

'Cleombrotus, upon the rampart's height,
Bad the bright sun farewell, then plung'd to night,
The cares of life to him were yet unknown —
Glad were his hours — his sky unclouded shone —
But Plato's reason caught his youthful eye,
And fix'd his soul on immortality.'

In the last couplet, however, we should prefer, as closer to the original,

But Plato's *doctrine won* his *mental* eye,
And fixed *its view* on immortality.

'*The dying Soldier's Address to his Friends.*
(*From Leonidas Alexandr.*) M.

'That soul which vanquish'd war could never win,
Now yields reluctant to a foe within.
Oh seize the sword! grant me a soldier's due,
And thus disease shall own my triumph too.'

The address to Health, by Aripheon the Sicyonian, is one of the most pleasing remnants of antiquity, and richly merits the commendations which Johnson has bestowed on it. The learned will immediately remember the scholium to which we refer: Ὑγίεια πρεσβίστα μακάρων; and those among our readers who may chance to have, as Ben Jonson said of Shakspeare,

* Spenser certainly did not, though he has some very admirable heroines. See Faery Queene, b. i. c. vi. xxxii.

"little

"little Latin and less Greek," may judge, from the prose translation in Number 48. of the Rambler, of the grace and fidelity of the following most poetical version by Mr. Bland; from which we will only detain them while we suggest the reading ὑστις πελει instead of ὀυδεις, in the last verse of the original, by which alteration we shall have a correct senarian.

'*Address to Health.* B.

'Health, brightest visitant from heaven,
Grant me with thee to rest!
For the short term by nature given,
Be thou my constant guest!
For all the pride that wealth bestows,
The pleasure that from children flows,
Whate'er we count in regal state
That makes men covet to be great;

'Whatever sweet we hope to find
In love's delightful snare;
Whatever good by heaven assign'd,
Whatever pause from care,
All flourish at thy smile divine;
The spring of loveliness is thine,
And every joy that warms our hearts
With thee approaches and departs.'

Of modern odes to Health, we know none equal to that of Shenstone, the subsequent lines of which bear a strong similarity to the poem just quoted:

"Wert thou, alas! but kind,
Methinks no frown that Fortune wears,
Nor lessen'd hopes, nor growing cares,
Could sink my cheerful mind."

In the first edition of this work, a different version of this scholium was given; which, though very far from deficient in closeness, strength, or harmony, was inferior to the present. That translation, if we remember rightly, was quoted in the notes to Mr. Hodgson's Juvenal; and we have heard that we may assign to this very spirited writer some extremely poetical pieces in the present collection, which are marked H.

We are not delighted with the translation of the fragment of Archilochus in p. 179. In fact, we should scarcely have advised its admission here; since, though not devoid of beauties, its scope is uncertain, and it presents very considerable difficulties of construction. These, indeed, may be avoided by generalizing, as when l. 3. τοίης γὰρ κατὰ κῦμα πολυφλόισβοιο θαλάσσης ἔκλυσεν is translated;

'The

> 'The billows of the deep-resounding sea
> Burst o'er our heads, and drown our revelry.'

Now, whatever be the aim of the fragment, it is clear that τοίυς refers to *persons*, not to the θαλια and ποτοι before mentioned, as the translator seems to understand. We had once conjectured τοιαδε: but Solon. Fr. xv. (ed. Gaisford,) and many other passages, defend τοιυς. 'Deep-resounding' is a bad version of πολυφλόισβοιο; and, afterward, where did the translators learn that πνευμων is Greek for a *vein?* In l. 7. we read ταδε for τοδε, and refer to κηδεα or κακα.

The inaccuracy of the present version is a sufficient refutation of the remark in the notes on this passage, on the fruitlessness of minute 'discussions such as these.' This determination to understand his author in a general sense has led the translator to render the words ἀιματόεν δ' ἕλκος ἀναστένομεν— (*we are groaning over our yet bleeding wound*) — 'We now weep in blood our nature's misery.' We must, moreover, protest against the insertion of a metaphor of which the original has no trace: — thus, in the Fragment before us,

> 'Soon shall the heavy scale of evil turn,
> And our full draught augment another's urn;'

which is a confusion of discordant metaphors, where the Greek simply says, "It (*i.e.* misery) will presently turn itself back again to others."

Much spirit animates the translations from Mimnermus. 'Hateful to youth, unlovely to the fair,' is a beautiful rendering of the line αλλ' ἐχθρὸς μὲν παισὶν, ἀτίμαστος δὲ γυναιξίν; and the words κρυπταδίη φιλότης, καὶ μείλιχα δῶρα καὶ εὐνὴ, are exactly 'the furtive kiss, soft pledge, and genial tie:' but the translator has been led into a trifling error by connecting these words with the following line, instead of the preceding, τεθναίην, ὅτε μοὶ μηκέτι τάυτα μέλοι; which, by the bye, are precisely Moore's

> "I care not how soon I may sink to repose,
> When these blessings shall cease to be dear to my mind."

From Solon's verses, Μνημοσύνης καὶ Ζηνὸς Ὀλυμπίου ἀγλαὰ τέκνα, Mr. Bland has selected only about eight couplets: which are so favourable a specimen of his powers, that we sincerely lament that he did not indulge us with more.

We are not generally satisfied with the sub-division called *Moral, Elegiac,* &c. and shall hasten to one on which we can confer almost unqualified approbation. It consists of extracts from the Grecian comic writers of the middle and later schools; and we were rejoiced to meet with some old acquaintances in

the shape of two or three exquisite translations by Cumberland. Though perhaps unequal to some of those, the present versions have much of the quiet dispassionate tone of melancholy which appears in the originals. We have room for only two extracts; the first, containing '*the Picture of an happy old Age*,' shews that Mr. Cumberland was too hasty in saying, in one of his papers on this subject in the Observer, that he could find in Anaxandrides nothing worth translating:

'Ye gods! how easily the good man bears
His cumbrous honours of increasing years!
Age, oh! my father, is not, as they say,
A load of evils heap'd on mortal clay,
Unless impatient folly aids the curse,
And weak lamenting makes our sorrows worse.
He, whose soft soul, whose temper ever even,
Whose habits, placid as a cloudless heaven,
Approve the partial blessings of the sky,
Smooths the rough road, and walks untroubled by,
Untimely wrinkles furrow not his brow,
And graceful wave his locks of reverend snow.' (M.)

How could we refrain from transcribing these exquisite lines from Moschion?

'*The Exile.* M.

'The proudest once, in glory, mind, and race,
The first of monarchs, of mankind the grace,
Now wandering, outcast, desolate, and poor,
A wretched exile on a foreign shore,
With miserable aspect bending low,
Holds in his trembling hand the suppliant bough;
Unhappy proof, how false the flattering light
Which fortune's blazing torch holds forth to sight!
Now, not the meanest stranger passing by,
But greets the groveling despot with a sigh,
Perhaps with gentle accents soothes his woe,
And lets the kindly tear of pity flow;
For where's the heart so harden'd and so rude,
As not to melt at life's vicissitude?'

We must, however, advise that, in the next edition, the two lines printed in italics should be omitted, since they are not to be found in the original.

[*To be continued.*]

ART.

ART. X. *A Narrative of the Events which have taken place in France*, from the landing of Napoleon Bonaparte, on the First of March 1815, till the Restoration of Louis XVIII. With an Account of the present State of Society and Public Opinion. By Helen Maria Williams. 8vo. pp. 390. 9s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1815.

POLITICAL events, involving the fate of empires, have passed before us in such rapid succession, that we seem to be gazing at some splendid phantasmagoria, or at some grand pageantry produced by the shades of a magic lanthorn, rather than at indisputable realities; while persons on both sides of the Channel are thrown by them into such a reverie or delirium, or are so agitated (if not misled) by party feelings, that it may be fairly questioned whether any individual can at present be found competent to write their true history. Yet we are all eager to comment on occurrences so truly stupendous, and to hear the comments of others: we sigh for truth, though we know that it is not easily to be obtained; and we catch at the *last* narrative, hoping to find in it something which has escaped all former observation. Though sure of being to a certain extent disappointed, we nevertheless read on until we find, at the conclusion, that we have not been gratified with those correct and impartial views which the future historian will feel it his duty to exhibit: but that a glass, blown and coloured for the occasion, has been put into our hands, through which we are required to look at the several scenes and characters that form the political drama.

After the lapse of many years, Miss Helen Maria Williams, to whom report had given a husband and in course a new name, now appears on the literary stage with the appellation of former times, but by no means in her former character. In days of yore, she presented herself as an enthusiastic admirer of the French Revolution, and an asserter of those principles of national rights on which the British constitution is established; principles totally adverse to absolute hereditary sovereignty, and to "the right divine of kings to govern wrong." Now, however, if she has not actually changed sides and gone over to the high tory party, she has happily found out that the principles of liberty are about to be espoused by those families who claim an hereditary and indestructible right to the several thrones of Europe; that these hereditary rulers 'are almost as weary of despotism as the people;' and that 'the ever-sacred name of liberty will become the order of the day of the nineteenth century.' What pretty talking! as the children say. Has the military system adopted by the sovereigns of Europe, or their recent conduct towards France on the second abdication

tion of Bonaparte, justified any chimeras of this kind? Does the conduct of Louis XVIII. at this moment justify them? This warm old female Whig, however, transformed into a sort of non-descript between a Revolutionist and a Bourbonist, reprobates Bonaparte as an usurper, and rejoices in the return of Louis XVIII. to the throne of his ancestors; persuaded that, in spite of old prejudices which attach him to the old *regime*, he must bend to the wish of his people; and remarking that 'the spirit of constitutional representation is abroad, and will walk the world.' Where, however, are the evidences, where indeed are the glimpses, of this fact?

If Miss Williams recognizes the principles of the British constitution as legitimate, surely she cannot approve the French Constitutional Chart; nor can she admire the fetters with which the restored monarch has clogged the national representation, as it is called. She notices, indeed, the declaration of the allies at the opening of the last campaign, that their warfare was directed solely against the unwarrantable assumptions of *one man*, and that they did not mean to interfere with the internal government of France: yet she expresses no indignation at the departure of the allies from this principle, when Bonaparte was subdued and had actually resigned; recording, without a comment, the subversion of every hope in the French people that they might obtain a bill of rights, by the singular avowal of the allied sovereigns, which cannot possibly be reconciled with their former avowal of non-interference, 'that, although the allied sovereigns had *hitherto appeared undecided*' (did ever a moment's indecision occur?) 'in the choice of a prince to take the crown of France, they had, on the preceding day,' (never before, *inter se?*) 'made a declaration that all the sovereigns were engaged to replace Louis XVIII. on the throne.' What then becomes of their former promise that, Bonaparte's throne being subverted, they would leave France to choose her own Governor? According to this last declaration, Louis's present throne is the *gift* of the all-victorious allies; who, by the irresistible right of conquest, can parcel out territory and population as they please. The four great cabinets of London, Petersburg, Vienna, and Berlin, now regulate the destinies of Europe: they can create a king of the Netherlands, and assure to Louis XVIII. a throne which not all the royalists of France could render stable, at least for the present, unless assisted by 150,000 foreign bayonets. The occupant of a throne thus circumstanced may indeed say, "Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown:" but political considerations oblige him to go through the fiery trial; and we should be happy to find him so far actuated by liberal and enlightened views, so far abandoning obsolete

obsolete and untenable principles, and so far yielding to the just expectations of his people, as to establish his empire in all hearts, and preclude the possibility of future revolutions:—but such, alas! is not now the prospect!

Miss Williams says that, if on Bonaparte's first appearance in the political horizon she was not cured of enthusiasm, his subsequent conduct in the characters of First Consul and Emperor dispelled all illusion with regard to him, and presented a clear insight into his real character. She now hates him as a tyrant 'who had pursued the vulgar and beaten track of ordinary ambition,' and exults over his fall and banishment. It would appear, from her representation, that he was by no means such an idol with the French people as his warm partizans would incline us to believe, and that his return from Elba was the wish *only of a few!* but it is difficult to account for his rapid journey rather than march from the bay of Juan to Paris, for the declaration of almost every town in France in his favour, for the ease with which he assembled a large army, and for the spirit which still manifests itself, though the remains of his former troops are disbanded, though Louis is restored, and though foreign corps are distributed throughout the whole kingdom;—it is difficult, we say, rationally to account for this state of things, without attributing to Bonaparte a degree of popularity far above that which Miss W. is willing to assign to him. The conspiracy of Ney and others, here fully detailed, was not alone sufficient to bring back Bonaparte to Paris. Had not the public to a certain extent favoured him, he must have been taken off before he reached Lyons. If our readers turn back to the French papers, from the first of January to the first of March of the present year, they will perceive that the government of Louis XVIII. was growing very unpopular; and that he had been charged with having broken his promise to the people.—How can he be excused if the experience of the past does not induce this twice restored monarch to trust less to foreign arms or to his own guards, than to the affections of his people; and if he does not recollect that, though armies may gain victories, acquiescence in public opinion can alone insure permanent tranquillity! Bonaparte is exiled to St. Helena, and will probably never revisit Europe: but the principles which first rallied the people round him cannot be exiled;—France is conquered, but she is not convinced;—she may be forced for a time to endure despotism, but she will never again hug it to her bosom. *Old* France was proud of the plenitude of power in the hands of Louis XIV.: but *new* France will not adore Louis XVIII. should he unfortunately fall into a resemblance of his celebrated predecessor. Admitting this representation to be

be correct, if we endeavour to account for Bonaparte's facile return to the Tuileries, we must refer not merely to the desertion of some Generals from the cause of the Bourbons, but to the fears excited by certain measures of the regal government, viz. that *tithes would return*, that national property would be restored, and that the promised *forgetfulness* of the past would *be forgotten.* Miss Williams's account, as a superficial statement of facts, may be correct, but we must remark that she does not detail half the circumstances of Bonaparte's singular journey which appeared in the news-papers. Having sketched his march, of which, she says, 'history presents no example,' she thus concludes her third letter:

'In the space of three short weeks, did this daring soldier transfer the seat of empire from his rocky exile to the palace of the Tuileries. We saw him seated on his throne, and we believed it to be almost a delusion of our senses. The rapidity of his march appears a prodigy of which history offers no example; the enterprize seems unparalleled in all that is great and daring; and his pacific triumph bears the stamp of the general assent of the nation. Such conclusions would, however, be most erroneous. There was nothing miraculous in his journey. He was quietly conveyed to Paris in his calèche, drawn by four post-horses, which he found prepared at every relay; and it required but ordinary courage to advance through a country where all that was hostile to his purpose were defenceless and unarmed, and all that could have opposed his progress hailed him with acclamations of transport. But if the triumphal march of Napoleon Bonaparte, from the coast of Provence to the capital of France, presents, when investigated in its details, no marvel to the imagination, it teaches, at least, a most tremendous lesson to mankind; it adds a new page of instruction on the danger of military influence; it shews us that no other ties are so powerful as those which bind the soldier to his chief. What the French army would have called rebellion was resistance to the voice of their General. The military ravagers of other countries can never become the civic defenders of their own. Their bosoms beat high with the unextinguishable hope of what mankind, in its hour of madness, has agreed to call by the name of glory. They had acquired under Bonaparte that fatal ascendant which led them to consider even their own country as their conquest. Careless of its miseries, forming a class apart from their fellow-citizens, like the Janizaries of the east, or the Pretorian bands of the Roman empire, they consulted only their own triumph, and disposed of crowns and sceptres at their will. The land which gave them birth, and which they were destined to defend, they have covered with desolation, and have opened an abyss to France from which the heart recoils, and where the eye fears to penetrate.'

In the next letter, Miss W. enlarges on Bonaparte's conduct after his arrival at Paris, takes notice of the *violet* which was worn as 'the badge of a sanguinary faction,' and then *sentimentally* remarks, 'after such a profanation, how many Springs must

must pass over the violet before its character will be retrieved, and its purity appear unsullied!'

It is, we believe, clearly established that the reception of Bonaparte by the popular faction, to whom he looked up for support, was not flattering to imperial pride:

'He was made to understand that he must lay aside past illusions; that the shouts of the soldiery or the mob were no proofs of popularity; that he must be conscious of being regarded with horror by the generality of the French nation; and that he could only maintain his power by renouncing the opinions on which he had founded and exercised his authority; and by a speedy return to the original principles of the French Revolution.'

Bonaparte is justly charged with having uttered falsehoods to deceive the people, and is represented as engaged in angry discussions with his ministers, in the course of which he was himself frequently called to order. With all this jarring, however, strong measures were adopted, the meeting in *the Field of May* was held *, and he was once more saluted Emperor. Miss W.'s reflections on this occasion must not be overlooked:

'Thus ended the assembly of the Field of May, which had been contrived in order to deceive the nation; a purpose that was altogether unfulfilled, since nobody was deceived. Some friends of Bonaparte, or rather friends of their country, had, indeed, in privy councils, whispered in his ear, that he might convert the pageantry of the Field of May into a scene of real glory: that he had an act of noble magnanimity to perform; and this was, to sign voluntarily, in the presence of the assembled empire, his own abdication. He was reminded that all Europe was at his frontiers; that its tremendous coalition might be at first resisted, but must eventually subdue; and that his crown and person would be the price of peace. He was called upon by every motive that could be urged, to do what, in truth, was only an act of prudent foresight; but which, all present and future times would applaud, as the generous resolve of a great and lofty spirit. He had but to declare, that seeing he was made the pretext of the cruel invasion with which France was menaced, he relinquished the empire he had regained, and withdrew, in the hope of being followed by the good wishes of the nation, and perhaps of deserving its applause.

* On the conduct of Napoleon on that day, it is remarked: 'he kept on his hat during the whole solemnity, before the assembled representatives of the nation, whose heads were uncovered; and even when he took the oath, as if to shew a sort of defiance of earth and of heaven. But in all probability it was from prudence that he kept on his hat, which *was always lined with steel*, and fitted to guard his head from danger. For the rest of his body he had nothing to fear, being always *wrapped in a coat of mail.*' In this respect, was Bonaparte like Cromwell? The assertion is new to us.

'Had Bonaparte been capable of such voluntary descent, this would indeed have proved for him a proud day, of new and virtuous renown. The merit of the sacrifice would have been admitted to be proportionate to its greatness; and amidst all the horrors of his devastating ambition, this last scene of his public existence would have shone like a track of unsullied light, along a dark and stormy horizon.'

We do not yield to the justness of these remarks. Bonaparte had gone too far to recede. His adherents would have termed such a step cowardice, while the allies would not have received this abdication as an adequate atonement for his reassumption of the imperial throne. He had passed the Rubicon, and *aut Cæsar aut nullus* was of necessity his motto. Marks of no ordinary abilities are manifest in the promptitude with which he assembled and sent to the northern frontier a large and well-appointed army; and though, to the honour of our country, he was vanquished in the sanguinary field of Waterloo, we should not forget that the praise bestowed on him by our great hero must ever lessen the ignominy of his defeat. Miss W. adopts the vulgar sentiment that Bonaparte should have destroyed himself after such an overthrow: but, if *suicide* were a Roman virtue, can Miss W. be a Christian and recommend it?

The fair author next details the march of the allied troops on Paris, and its occupation by them, not forgetting to compliment the British army on its good conduct:

'A friend of mine wrote to me from the south, "Lord Wellington will soon pass near our château, but we shall remain in perfect security —all is safe where they appear." Many of the peasants who had ventured to remain in their dwellings had suffered cruelly from the merciless rapine of the French, and were perhaps disposed to exclaim, "Save me from my friends." They were filled with astonishment when they beheld an armed host, four abreast, pause when about to enter the field of wheat, in crossing the country, and changing their order proceed in Indian files, one by one, along the narrow beaten path, careful to do no injury by treading on the corn, and avoid "bruising the flowerets of the valley with hostile paces."

'In a little village called Vertu, two leagues from Paris, the English troops, on their arrival, told the inhabitants they must dislodge immediately; but, to the great surprize of the peasants, the soldiers set themselves to work, and helped them to remove their little furniture, carefully avoiding to break or injure any thing by precipitation. "Comme ils sont bons! comme ils sont bons!" was repeated a thousand times by these poor people on their entering Paris. What a proud tribute of praise for a conquering General is contained in those simple words issuing from the lips of the vanquished.'

In the progress of the Russian army towards the French capital, in 1814, a Polish regiment, composing a part of it, unexpectedly

met with their illustrious countryman Kosciusko, in the character of a French farmer; and an affecting incident is said to have occurred on this occasion:

'A Polish regiment, forming part of the advanced guard of the Russian army, after expelling the French from Troyes, marched upon Fontainebleau. The troops were foraging in a neighbouring village, and were about to commit disorders, which would have caused considerable loss to the proprietors, without benefit to themselves; such as piercing the banks, or forcing the sluices of some fish-ponds. While they were thus employed, and their officers looking on, they were astonished to hear the word of command bidding them to cease, pronounced in their own language, by a person in the dress of the upper class of peasants. They ceased their attempt at further spoliation, and drew near the stranger. He represented to the troops the useless mischief they were about to commit, and ordered them to withdraw. The officers coming up were lectured in their turn; and heard with the same astonishment the laws of predatory warfare explained to them. "When I had a command in the army, of which your regiment is a part, I punished very severely such acts as you seem to authorize by your presence: and it is not on those soldiers but on you that punishment would have fallen." To be thus tutored by a French farmer, in their own language, in such circumstances, and in such terms, was almost past endurance. They beheld the peasants at the same time taking off their hats, and surrounding the speaker, as if to protect him in case of violence; while the oldest among their own soldiers, anxiously gazing on the features of the stranger, were seized with a kind of involuntary trembling. Conjured more peremptorily, though respectfully, to disclose his quality and his name, the peasant, drawing his hand across his eyes to wipe off a starting tear, exclaimed, with an half stifled voice, "I am Kosciusko!"

'The movement was electric. The soldiers threw down their arms, and falling prostrate on the ground, according to the custom of their country, covered their heads with sand. It was the prostration of the heart. On Kosciusko's return to his house in the neighbourhood of this scene, he found a Russian military post established to protect it.

'The Emperor Alexander, having learnt from M. de la Harpe that Kosciusko resided in the country, ordered for him a guard of honour, and the country around his dwelling escaped all plunder and contribution.

'Kosciusko had withdrawn some years since from the guilty world of Bonaparte to cultivate a little farm, rejecting every offer which was made him by Napoleon, who had learnt to appreciate his worth. Kosciusko knew him well. I called on him one day to bid him farewell, having read in the official paper of the morning his address to the Poles on the subject of recovering their freedom, being named to the command of the Polish army by Bonaparte. Kosciusko heard me with a smile at my credulity; but on my shewing him the address with his signature, he exclaimed, "This is all a forgery; Bonaparte knew

knew me too well to insult me with any offer in this predatory expedition; he has adopted this mode, which I can neither answer nor resent, and which he attempts to colour with the pretext of liberty. His notions and mine respecting Poland are at as great a distance as our sentiments on every other subject."'

The late return of Louis XVIII. to his capital is depicted by Miss W. with all the enthusiasm of a Bourbonist; and, admitting her account to be a fair representation, surely the presence of 150,000 foreign troops cannot be necessary to his safety:

'Lewis XVIII. attended by the Comte d'Artois, the Duke of Berry, and a numerous and brilliant escort of regular troops, and of the National Guard, now reached again his capital. I had often witnessed imperial processions, composed of gay regiments of lancers with floating banners, groups of pages, plumed horses, and the imperial figure, often vainly soliciting applause. It is true that the journals the following day spoke of acclamations that had never been heard, and of transports that had never been felt. The public had also been always prepared by programmes for the order of the ceremony. At the entry of Lewis XVIII. there was no programme, for there had been no preparation. The procession was less magnificent, but its accompaniments were far different. No—Bonaparte, in all the pride of his conquests, was never so welcomed! The people, which, as the poet observes, are always the sight on these occasions, —the people are moral machines, and have feelings which power can neither command nor controul.'

It is allowed that the Prussians were guilty of great excesses: but, in order to leave rather a favourable impression of them, an anecdote is related which seems to soften the ferocious character of their retaliation:

'The Parisians themselves received occasional lessons from these invaders. An old Countess, in the Fauxbourg St. Germain, welcomed with politeness a Prussian officer who was quartered on her house. Invited to dinner at the usual time, he ordered that it might be ready at an earlier hour, having asked some brother-officers to dine with him; and throwing himself at the same time with his dirty boots on one of the blue silk canopies. He went out, and returned alone. The dinner was served. He found the first course detestable, and threw the successive plates to which he was helped on the floor. Shewn to his apartments on the second story, he refused to occupy them, and ordered those of the first floor to be prepared for him, though told that they were inhabited by the mistress of the house. After committing a number of other extravagancies, such as smoking in the lady's *boudoir*, he took possession of her chamber. His servants, and dogs, having retired to the apartments prepared for their master, the lady of the house was obliged to accommodate herself with a room in the attic story. The next morning she was summoned to attend the officer, which she did with trembling, expecting to receive some new insult or humiliation. The Countess was astonished at her reception. The Prussian led her gallantly to a seat, and

placed himself beside her. "You have no doubt, madam," he said, "been shocked at my behaviour in your house. I marked your astonishment at my insolence in spoiling your silk furniture, scattering fragments of your viands on the floor, smoking in your boudoir, turning you out of your apartments, and other extravagancies. You no doubt thought me a barbarian." The Countess did not seem disposed to deny the allegation. "Madam, you have a son in Prussia?" She started, and her eyes filled with tears. "I had a son, Sir, but I fear he has perished." "Do you recognize this writing?" said the officer, shewing her the cover of a letter. "Yes, Sir, it is the last letter I wrote to my son, I have received no answer." "Madam, I am no barbarian; I have acted a part, and fulfilled a duty enforced on me by filial tenderness. I almost hate myself for having acted it so well. What I have made you suffer for these last few hours, your son inflicted on my palsied mother for several months. I will distress you no longer — your son is alive — In one of the last skirmishes he was wounded dangerously — I saved him from the fury of our soldiers — My mother provided for his safety — You will soon receive him to your arms. Adieu, madam, I quit your house; I have preserved your son, and I have avenged my mother."'

Apparently, Miss W. is a little embarrassed with the last act of the piece, which may be called "*The Allies again at Paris*," and she seems to feel for the Parisians on the dismemberment of their Grand Central Museum: but she does not enter on the question of the impolicy of this measure, considering the Museum as a great school of the arts formed for the benefit of all Europe; nor does she try to penetrate the real views of those who have contributed to its demolition. Regarded merely as *stolen goods*, these monuments of the arts certainly ought to be restored to the places whence they had been taken: but, if they could be contemplated as public property belonging to all Europe, more than to any particular country or individual, their *location* at Paris, in a central museum forming a grand and perfect whole, might be regarded as more desirable for the promotion of the arts, than the distribution of the several objects composing it in a separated state. The people of the capital were overwhelmed with grief at seeing the Corinthian horses, once destined to be harnessed to the chariot of the sun, and united by Bonaparte to the car of Victory, dislodged from their station at the entrance of the Tuileries; and at learning the determination of the allies to deprive Paris of all the splendid monuments of art which Napoleon, in the days of his triumph, had collected. Their feeling on this occasion extorts a compliment from Miss W.

'It may be observed by the way, that this violence of resentment, this desperate fury at the removal of those master-pieces of art, denote the feelings of a people arrived at a very high degree of civilization. The Parisians, while they had supported with equanimity the most signal calamities, and endured with cheerfulness the most cruel privations,

tions, deplored with sensibility, and goaded almost to madness, the loss of objects which, far from being necessary to the wants of ordinary life, are only fitted to charm and embellish its highest state of refinement.'

We are informed that not a twentieth part of the pictures remains in the Gallery of the Louvre; that the fine statues are all removed; and that the most valuable contents of the library are returned to that grave of MSS., the Vatican: yet Miss W. endeavours to console the Parisians with the assurance that enough is left behind to form a very repectable Museum.

A general portrait of Bonaparte is drawn by Miss Williams: but we observe in it no striking novelty of delineation or perception of character, that can require us to make room for it in our pages. The volume also contains a number of subordinate incidents and anecdotes, which may amuse the reader, but for which in some cases no authority is given, and we therefore do not quote them. We have preferred, indeed, to consider the work in its more important points; and we must not conceal our opinion that its author has not exhibited such a history of the present state of France as will pass current fifty years hence. It may gratify many readers of the present day, but *sana posteritas* will not compliment her penetration. Adverting at pp. 304, 305. to the experience acquired by the French people, she observes that they have learnt what is *not* freedom; and we join with her in hoping, not for their sake only, but for the sake of Europe and the world, that they may yet obtain and deserve the enjoyment of what *is* freedom.

ART. XI. *An Essay on the Life of Michel de l'Hôpital, Chancellor of France.* By Charles Butler, Esq. Crown 8vo. pp. 80. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

OFTEN have we had the pleasure of introducing to our readers the author of this Essay, and well has he been made known to the public in various pursuits. He has frequently appeared before them in the progress of the long discussions on the Catholic-question, and in tracts which it has successively called forth; and, in spite of the avocations of a very extensive business as a conveyancer, his active mind has enabled him to compose several works connected with topics of Biblical and legal research, as well as short notices on a more inviting topic, — the biography of eminent Catholics, particularly Fenelon and Bossuet. The present little narrative seems to have been framed in order to set in a striking light the moderation and wisdom of the course pursued by one of the chancellors of France, in the sixteenth century; a time of all others

the most delicate, because the rancour of controversy was fresh, and mankind were still strangers to the policy of toleration.

Michel de l' Hôpital was born in 1505, and educated to the bar: after which, his family-connections placed him in the way of court-employment. The nature of the occupations of a servant of the crown was, in those days, not very strictly limited to a particular department: De l' Hôpital having been at first counsellor of the parliament of Paris, afterward ambassador to the council of Trent, next a superintendent of the finances, and finally chancellor of France.

With regard to the state and constitution of the Parliament of France, and the habits of its members at this time, Mr. Butler observes:

'The reader must be cautioned against confounding the constitution of the Parliament of France with that of the Parliament of England. The origin of each is traced to the great national assemblies of the tribes who conquered the Roman empire. In almost every country where the feudal institutions have been established, a national council, under the name of States-general, Cortez, Plaids, Great Assizes, or Parliament, or under some other name, was introduced, and gradually became composed of three states, the Lords Spiritual, the Lords Temporal, and the Commons. Their functions were not only judicial, but, as their consent was necessary to give to the ordinances of the king the effect of law, they were also legislative. In the course of time, the parliament of England became divided into its two houses, the Lords and Commons, and, together with the King, constituted the Legislature of the nation: but its judicial power generally fell into disuse, except in causes which are brought before the House of Lords by appeal. The reverse happened in almost every country on the Continent; in them, the parliament gradually lost its legislative authority, and subsided into a High Court of Justice for the last resort, and a Court of Royal Revenue. It generally consisted of a fixed number of ecclesiastical peers, a fixed number of lay peers, and a fixed number of counsellors. All were equally judges, and had an equal right of giving their opinions, and an equal voice in the decree.

'Such was the constitution of the French Parliament when L'Hôpital was received into it. But at that time it had somewhat degenerated from its ancient splendour. The close of the preceding century is described by French writers as the golden era of the French magistracy. It is every where said, that the knowledge which the members of it possessed of the law was at once extensive and profound; that they were equally conversant in its theory and its practice; that they respected their profession; were aware of the importance of a proper discharge of their duty; and that, while their undeviating attention and gravity assured the lowest class of subjects that justice would be fully and impartially administered to them, it intimated to persons in the highest order of life, that, in the scales of justice, rank was of no account. At six o'clock in the morning, both in winter and in summer,

examiner, they took their seats in court. At ten o'clock the beadle entered the court, and announced the hour, and they retired to dine. After dinner, they returned to their seats; at six o'clock, the business of the courts was closed; the rest of the day was devoted to their families, and literary pursuits were their only relaxation. "To feel," says the Abbé Gédoyn, in one of his entertaining memoirs, "that magistrates were, in those days, more addicted, than they are in our times, to professional and literary studies, it is sufficient to compare the state of Paris at that time with its present state. At the time we speak of, the police of Paris was very bad; the city was ill built, and had not half either of the houses or the inhabitants which it now contains. The streets were ill laid out, excessively dirty, never lighted, and therefore, after dusk, very unsafe. The only public spectacles were vulgar farces, after which the populace ran with avidity, but which all decent persons avoided. Their meals were very frugal; there was nothing in them to attract company; the fortunes of individuals were small, and parsimony was the only means of increasing them. A coach of any kind was hardly seen; persons of high rank walked on foot, in galôches, or in small boots, which, when they paid a visit of ceremony, they left in the antichamber, and resumed when they quitted it. The magistrates rode on mules when they went to the courts of justice or returned from them. It followed that, when a magistrate, after the sittings of the court, returned to his family, he had little temptation to stir again from home. His library was necessarily his sole resource; his books, his only company. Speaking generally, he had studied hard at college; and had acquired there a taste for literature which never forsook him. To this austere and retired life we owe the Chancellor de l'Hôpital, the President de Thou, Pasquier, Loisel, the Pithous, and many other ornaments of the magistracy. These days are passed; and they are passed because the dissipation of Paris is extreme. Is a young man of family now destined for the law? Before he attains his 16th year, a charge is obtained for him, and he sports a chariot. With such facilities of going and coming, what a wish must there be to be in every place where pleasure calls! Consider only the time given, even by persons of decent habits of life, to music, and the opera! What a subtraction it is from that portion of time, which the magistrates of old gave to professional study and literature!"

Of the important office finally attained by M. de l'Hôpital, it is remarked:

"The rank of chancellor was in France, as it is in England, the highest dignity to which a subject could attain; but in the nature of those offices, as they were finally constituted in the two kingdoms, there is a considerable distinction. In both, the chancellor is the first dignitary of the state; the guardian of his majesty's conscience, and generally has the custody of the great seal. In addition to which, the chancellor in England is, in right of the king, visitor of all hospitals and colleges in the king's foundation, is patron of all the king's livings under a certain yearly value, is general guardian of all

infants and lunatics, and has the general superintendence of all the charitable foundations in the kingdom. Several of these important functions belong, in some manner, to the chancellor of France; but over all these, the chancellor of England exercises, in a judicial capacity, a vast and extensive jurisdiction in the court of chancery, partly as a court of common law, but principally as a court of equity. The chancellor of France had no such exclusive court; but he had the universal superintendence over all that related to the administration of justice in the kingdom.'

The religious troubles in France had just begun when De l'Hôpital was appointed to this high office; and he had to contend with all the influence and vehemence of the Princes of Guise, who were the declared enemies of the Protestants, and even wished to introduce the Inquisition. The admirable contrast afforded by the Chancellor's conduct gives Mr. Butler occasion to enter (pp. 28, 29, 30.) into an exposition of the true principles of toleration. This virtuous and intelligent magistrate laboured likewise at that most desirable object, a simplification of the method of administering justice. In France, previously to the late Revolution, the situation of Judge was hereditary in many cases, and in others attainable by purchase. When the king established a new court of justice, he regularly fixed the number of Judges, and the specific sums to be paid by them for their respective offices: on compliance with which, a grant was made out to the parties by letters under the great seal, and the offices continued hereditary in the families of the grantees until they chose to dispose of it by sale. It is fair, at the same time, to add that considerable care was taken to ascertain that the person admitted to purchase should be properly qualified for the discharge of the duties of Judge.

'Sometimes the Chancellor himself examined the persons appointed to offices, on their competency. "One day," says Brantôme, "I called on M. Le Chancelier de l'Hôpital, with Mareschal Strozzi, who was among his favourites, and he invited us to dine. For our dinner he gave us an excellent bouillie, and nothing more; but his conversation was excellent; fine words, fine sentences in abundance, and now and then a gentle joke. After dinner, a couple of counsellors just chosen into their offices were announced; he ordered them in, and, without desiring them to sit down, called for the code, and questioned the two gentlemen, who were trembling all the while as a leaf, on different articles in it. Their answers did not shew much knowledge; and he gave them such a lecture! Though the youngest of them was fifty years old, he sent them back to their studies. Strozzi and I stood by the fire-side highly diverted with the scene, and particularly with the rueful countenances of the two magistrates; they had all the appearance of men going to be hanged. At length the Chancellor packed them off with a frown; and assured them that he would inform the king how ignorant they were, and would see that

that their charges should be given to others. As soon as they were out of hearing, he told us they were two great asses; and that it was against conscience that the king should name such persons for Judges. We suggested to him that the game which he had offered them was too strong for their palates. Far from it, said the Chancellor; I questioned them on no point, on which a tyro in the law should not be fully informed." '

Another curious circumstance in the administration of justice in France, and one which still continues, is the admission of the suitors to a personal interview with the Judge at the house of the latter, for the avowed purpose of urging their claims. As females perform so prominent a part in matters of business in France, they are said to figure very conspicuously on these occasions also: but the whole, we are assured, is of little avail, the French Judges bearing in general a fair character, and finding means to decide according to their conviction, without any other modification than an assumption of ceremonious politeness,—little adapted, we confess, to the character of a Judge, and with which they would have no occasion to trouble themselves, were the business conducted as it is in England.

After a few more observations on the improvements which M. de l' Hôpital was desirous of introducing, Mr. Butler proceeds to mention that, tired at last by the continued opposition of the house of Guise, he withdrew from office in 1568, and died in 1573. He was suspected of being in his heart a Protestant: but he was regular in the observance of the Catholic forms of worship, and his friends insisted that the charge of protestantism was alleged merely to render him obnoxious at court. His death not having taken place till several months after the fatal day of St. Bartholomew, he experienced the most severe affliction at that event; and in a letter, written soon after it to a friend, he made use of the emphatic words, "*I have lived too long.*"

ART. XII. *English Synonyms discriminated,* by W. Taylor, Jun. of Norwich. Crown 8vo. pp. 294. 6s. Boards. Pople.

A SHORT historical notice of various publications on synonyms, in different languages, introduces this volume. In former ages, Latin was the only language which in this respect engaged the attention of philologists: but, a century ago, the Abbé Girard set the example of applying habits of critical discrimination to his native tongue. His work, as Mr. Taylor observes, is executed with elegance, sagacity, and perspicuity; and it is only to be regretted that he did not deem it necessary to analyze the causes of his results, or to state them with a reference to historical etymology. He relied too much on current

rent usage; so that his successor Roubaud, who draws his conclusions from etymological data, particularly in the Latin language, is now consulted as a superior authority. In French, Italian, or Spanish, the task of discriminating is much facilitated by an accurate knowlege of Latin: but our own language requires a wider range of previous study, the Saxon forming a very material part of its structure. In this particular, considerable assistance may be derived from a knowlege of modern German; and from the study of the works of some philologists of that country, who have lately applied to the explanation of synonymous words those habits of care and attention which have so much benefited other departments of science.

Mr. Taylor has consequently found, in an acquaintance with German literature, the means of essentially facilitating the task of discriminating English words of kindred signification. Without laying claim to the merit of novelty in the greater portion of his work, he has brought forwards a sufficient share of original matter, and of perspicuous reasoning, to satisfy us that he has here provided a very useful manual for those who aim at speaking and writing their own language with accuracy; and we can readily illustrate this remark by a few instances.

'*Synonymous. Homonymous.*

'Words allied in signification are called synonymous, words allied in name only are called homonymous: synonym (from συν and ονομα) meaning a fellow-name, and homonym (from ὁμος and ονομα) meaning a same name. In Latin, the words *taurus*, bull, and *bos*, ox, are synonyms; but the words *Taurus*, a mountain so called, and *taurus*, a bull, are homonyms. In English, the words *lead-pigs* and *plumbeous ingots* are synonymous; but *lead-pigs* and *lead pigs* (in the sense 'guide swine') are homonymous. Synonyms busy the ingenuity of the grammarian; homonyms, of the punster.'

'*Surprized. Astonished. Amazed. Confounded.*

'I am surprised at what is unexpected; I am astonished by what is striking; I am amazed in what is incomprehensible; I am confounded with what is embarrassing.

'Surprised means *overtaken*; astonished means *thunderstruck*; amazed means *lost in a labyrinth*; and confounded means *melted together*. For want of bearing in mind the original signification of these words, our writers frequently annex improper prepositions, such as are inconsistent with the metaphor employed.'

'*Entertaining. Diverting.*

'That is entertaining which *keeps* up mirth *between* us; that is diverting which *turns aside* our attention. I am entertained by the conversation within; I am diverted by the bustle in the street. A well-placed anecdote entertains; a pun diverts. An entertaining man is a correct companion; a diverting man is often a troublesome one.

one. Preparations are made to entertain; that which is unexpected diverts.'

'*Custom. Habit. Fashion. Usage.*

'Custom is a frequent repetition of the same act; habit is the effect of such repetition: fashion is the custom of numbers; usage is the habit of numbers.

'It is a good custom to rise early; this will produce a habit of so doing; and the example of a distinguished family may do much toward reviving the fashion, if not toward re-establishing the usage.

'*Suere*, apparently, means to dwell, *to go under* the same roof; *consuetudo*, (whence custom) is therefore a common path, the way of the house, as we analogously say. Habit means *dress*; fashion the *cut* of dress. Usage comes from *utor*, *uti*, to use, an abstract verb, of which the sensible idea is indecent.

'Customary, habitual, fashionable, usual, are the appertaining adjectives; but *fashionable* is impurely formed, and ought to mean *able to be fashioned: fashiony* would be more analogous.'

'*Cure. Remedy.*

'A cure is the effect of a remedy: the one describes a beneficial constitutional change in the body, and the other the drug, application, or process which brought on the change.

'These words would not require explaining, had not Dr. Trusler mis-stated their application; yet their derivation would justify some confusion in their use; for *cura*, care, is an efficacious remedy; and remedy, the *thing curing*, has acquired an abstract termination.'

'*To observe. To remark.*

'To observe is to record with the eye, and to remark is to record with the pen; the one requires patient attention, (*ob* and *servare*) the other *marked* notice. We observe the weather-glass in order to remark the level of the quicksilver; we may remark the indications of to-day in order to observe the variation of to-morrow. It is the part of a General to observe the motions of the enemy, and to remark those of his men who distinguish themselves in battle. In old times there were more observers than remarkers; in the present state of literature there are more remarkers than observers. The statement of an individual fact is called a remark; and the statement of an inference, an observation.'

'*Civility. Urbanity. Politeness.*

'Civility is that deferential attention to others, which arises from being under civil subordination. Urbanity is that easier and less crouching deportment, which the habit of residing in cities brings on. Politeness is the still more exquisite smoothness and propriety, which is acquired by moving in the higher circles or in various nations. A man of civility is often too ceremonious, and fatigues by the affectation of useless attentions. A man of urbanity is often too free, and though he bears raillery with reciprocity, will hazard it with teazing sincerity. A man of politeness is not so courteous to his superiors as the man of civility; nor so affable to his inferiors as the man of urbanity; but he satisfies all by a behaviour, which discri-

with an appropriate moral conclusion about 'the shackles of a barbarous age,' *enthusiasm*, *bigotry*, and *bondage*. In the second canto, we reckon not fewer than nine of these songs; some of which are of such original and striking simplicity, that we cannot forbear to transcribe one or two specimens of them:

Song the First.

'" O tell me, why by day, O tell me why by night
'Tis only one sweet flower is pleasant to my sight?
Unless I see the rose, by day I waste and weep;
Unless I see the rose, by night I cannot sleep.

'If down the dale so green, I cast my wishful eye,
'Tis barren all and dark, if I no rose espy:
If on the shadowy wood the moon so soft repose,
I do not love her light unless I see the rose.

'If in my visions wild, I wander o'er the sea,
Tho' curl the tranquil tide, it is not calm to me —
Till now some faery power the expanse with roses strew:
Then smooth'd is every surge o'er ocean heavenly-blue.

'Tho' nigh some foundering ship I view the sea-wraith's form,
As to the winds he shrieks, and lashes up the storm;
All into peace is hush'd! — for lo, my crimson leaves,
Scatter'd by gentle sprites, glance o'er the blushing waves.

'Then tell me why by day, O tell me why by night,
'Tis only that sweet flower is pleasant to my sight?
Unless I see the rose, by day I waste and weep!
Unless I see the rose, by night I cannot sleep!"'

Again:

'" I was then, in sooth, a cottage maid,
Of my own shadow quite afraid;
And, as I thro' my vagaries ran,
I met a fine young gentleman
Whom some-one would rejoice to see —
If you mean me!

'But how you could such matters know,
Would puzzle the de'el to say, I trow!
For there was neither carle nor crone
Nigh the cot or the church, when the clock struck one!
O! it is all a mystery —
If you mean me!

'Yet, good my dame, since you can tell
What is past and gone so well,
You, sure, have power to bid me look
A little into Fortune's book;
Whatever my poor hap may be —
If you mean me!"'

A degree of peculiar elegance marks the following lines, in which Isabel's *femme de chambre*, Jesse, 'a gentle though a

rural maid,' comes in to assuage the sorrows of her mistress, who is weeping for the loss of her mother. Every line breathes the accents of consolation:

' " Jesu Maria! what all alone!
Like you, laments not every one!
But O! had I lost such a mother, besure,
For trouble I never should smile any more!
And your father is sent to the west, they all say,
To fight with a rebel, and die in the fray!
And your sister sneers at your distress —
I dread her evil eye, no less
Than that old hag, the *Prioress!*
And that dark *Monk*, of shaven crown,
Who stalks the cloysters up and down
With giant gait and savage frown —
From his scowl, as from a ghost, I start —
But pray, my lady! pray, take heart." '

In the third canto, after ' a Hymn to the Virgin,' a certain animal in disguise ' what seemed a friar,' with visage wan, on which sat the *moiety of a grin*, is thus happily introduced:

' But scarce was the last echo gone,
Fainting as in prophetic tone,
Ere at her door, what seem'd a *Friar*,
Clad in Mount Carmel's coarse attire,
With downcast look and half a grin,
Was by Father Nicholas usher'd in.'

The early affection and increasing flame of Edward and Isabel are pourtrayed in language thus impassioned:

' Yes! " many a year" with Isabel
'Twas his to traverse lawn and dell;
Now touching an impassion'd wire,
Nor aught suspecting amorous fire;
Beaming on her a brother's eyes —
And what were her's but sister-sighs?'

We might prolong this amusing strain almost *ad infinitum*: but we think that enough has already been said of the fair Isabel of Cotehele; which, in spite of the ' still existing contest between Papists and Protestants,' we cannot deem so ' peculiarly interesting at the present day' as the author appears to hope. Without considerable amendment, indeed,—we had almost said, without a total reformation of the piece,—we apprehend that it is not likely at any future period to be more favourably received: unless posterity should haply have imbibed a much keener relish for *carles* and *crones*, and *minarets* and *bazars*, and *faery phantoms* and *shrivel'd, unshrieved witches*, than we have ourselves hitherto been able to attain.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For NOVEMBER, 1815.

CLASSICS, EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 14. *Collectanea Latina;* or Easy Construing Lessons from the best Latin Authors. By the Rev. W. Allen, M.A. Master of the Grammar School, Bolton-le-Moor. 12mo. pp. 160. Law and Whittaker.

This little elementary volume consists of a certain number of appropriate examples of the syntactical rules in the Eton grammar. It is accompanied by directions to the young beginner for the proper method of construing and analysing sentences, and at the end is subjoined an *index verborum*, compiled after the manner of a dictionary. The work is well executed as far as it goes, and the author aspires to nothing more than the hope of its being found 'easier and more progressive than any similar book which has yet been produced.' At the same time, we confess, we have been unable to discover in it any particular utility, any new method of explaining difficulties, or any saving of time to the student or of trouble to the instructor. The examples affixed to the rules of the Eton syntax were already, we conceive, amply sufficient for their illustration; and the directions for construing and parsing might as well if not better be given by word of mouth. On the whole, we rather approve the usual method in our public schools, of putting into the hands of young scholars the Fables of Phædrus, or the Epistles of Ovid, as soon as the grammatical part of the language has been thoroughly learnt: at all events, we should recommend something rather more entertaining than a dry uninteresting set of examples.

Art. 15. *Fundamentum Latinitatis:* or, a Grammar of the Latin Tongue. In which various Errors and Improprieties of Latin Grammarians are avoided: *seven Tenses* are claimed, but *three Moods* only; all the Rules are simplified, yet, besides those in English, given in *Latin Verse;* wherein the numerous *rhetorical Figures* are briefly explained; and *Versification* also is facilitated in a full Account of the *Metrical Art*. By the Rev. Richard Postlethwaite, Rector of Rocke in Cornwall. 12mo. 5s. bound. Crosby and Co.

From the pomposity of this title, we were induced to expect something peculiarly striking, learned, and profound: but the perusal of a few pages soon convinced us of our error, and brought to our recollection a line in Horace, which we remember to have heard Porson once quote on opening a dead oyster, "*Quid feret hic tanto dignum promissor hiatu.*" In point of fact, then, this '*Fundamentum Latinitatis,*'—which, with the despotic sway of arbitrary authority, claims not itself *seven tenses*, and with the frugal penuriousness of grammatical economy is contented with the humble possession of '*three moods only,*' in which 'all the rules are simplified,' &c. &c.—all this, we must inform our readers, is nothing more nor less than a very bad edition of a Latin grammar. So far from being an improvement, we conceive it to be the strongest illustration that we have ever seen

seen of the degenerating nature of all human affairs. In what respect the errors and improprieties of Latin grammarians are avoided, or what facility is given to versification, by this full account of the metrical art, of which we find such ludicrous boastings, — these are points known, we believe, only to the author himself. On the other hand, the great and perhaps the only absurdity contained in the Eton grammar, namely, the rules for the genders of nouns, and the formation of the perfect tense being laid down in a ridiculous collection of verses, Mr. Postlethwaite has taken due care to retain. We do not exactly understand in what way the line

Vĕrūm mō mŭi *băbētŏ* mĭtūm, *vĕl* mī *făcĭto et* mptūm, — p. 100.

can be said to be an improvement on the Eton, "*mo fit ui.*" — The simplicity, too, of

Sŭī, ssūm *dăs* TIO; *sĕd* pĕpĕrī, pārtūm PARIO *vŭlt*, — p. 94.

we confess ourselves at a loss to comprehend.

With regard to this enlargement of tenses, and the establishment of a present perfect and a preterite perfect, and all the rest of the perfects, though certainly a difference of time is expressed in the two instances here produced, yet we see no sufficient reason which should prevent the general head of perfect or preterite from comprizing both with the utmost consistency: — it is surely more simple, more plain, and better adapted to the capacity of young beginners; because, if every the minutest distinction of time is to claim to itself a separate tense as necessary to express that distinction, where is to be the end, how indefinite will be the number, how intricate the acquirement? It seems, moreover, that, because the tenses were enlarged, the moods must be curtailed. This is in truth "robbing Peter to pay Paul;" and, as is generally the case when bold attempts, unsupported by good sense and solid judgment, are made to alter what has long been established and has stood the test of experience, the whole reasoning at once falls to the ground by the exceeding pressure of the absurdity attached to it. This curtailment of the number of moods is wonderously effected by abolishing the infinitive altogether, of which the author would make a kind of non-descript, or rather not a mood, 'but *a mode or variation assumed by the verb*,' without even a nominal distinction; and he who would so completely analyze and dissect the perfect tense, and divide and subdivide it into a thousand petty independent states, is not contented with impoverishing, indeed almost annihilating, the poor infinitive, but would make 'the optative and potential reducible to the indicative and subjunctive.'

Our eyes, we trust, will ever be open to the reformation of error: but alteration without amendment leads only to greater confusion, and more perplexing difficulties. The advice, therefore, of Quintilius to his versifying acquaintance, we cannot but regard as an appropriate lesson to Mr. Postlethwaite: "*Corrige sodes.*"

Art. 16. *Selections for Reading and Recitation:* designed for the Use of Schools. By James Hews Bransby. 12mo. 5s. 6d. bound. Cradock and Joy. 1814.

The poetical pieces in this compilation are selected with considerable taste: but the didactic prose-extracts are somewhat dry for very

young readers, though in point of composition, style, and morality, the contents of the volume are unexceptionable.

Art. 17. *Exercises on Latin Prosody and Versification.* 12mo. 4s. bound. Longman and Co. 1815.

The question relating to the utility of Latin versification is at length, we trust, brought to a conclusion. The numerous charges, which have so frequently been maintained against it, as a nugatory and useless practice, have been as ably refuted as they have been ingeniously supported; and, if any thing has been wanting to the arguments in its favour, experience has supplied the deficiency. It has been tried, and we know it by its fruits: for it is a fact, though not admitted by those who are ignorant of the art itself, and are on that account interested in the disparagement of its merits, yet universally acknowleged by our most experienced and enlightened scholars, that it gives that peculiar insight into the genius and spirit of the language which no other method of instruction is capable of imparting. The young pupil is by these means gradually forming a refined and cultivated taste, on the models of those authors who are proposed to him for his imitation; he is exercising his powers of invention; he is strengthening his talents for accurate discrimination; he is rendering his imagination more brilliant, his fancy more fertile, and gradually bringing his judgment to maturity and perfection. On these grounds, we are well disposed to countenance any tolerable attempts to assist the progress of so useful a branch of instruction; and to promote this end, we think, the work before us is in a great degree calculated: though, as the author himself appears to be aware, and very candidly acknowleges, much remains yet to be done for the entire completion of his design. His illustrations of the general rules of quantity are just and accurate; the rules for the construction of the Hexameter and Pentameter are stated with clearness and precision; and the exercises both in the Latin and the English language, though perhaps the port-folio of every tutor may contain as good a collection, are selected with some degree of judgment and poetical taste. The whole is rendered more easy by being compiled in the vernacular tongue; and, considering it merely as an elementary work for the inexperienced beginner, we feel no hesitation in announcing it as happily designed, and tolerably well executed.

Art. 18. *Delectus Sententiarum Græcarum, ad usum Tironum accommodatus: cum Notulis et Lexico.* 12mo. 3s. bound. Longman and Co.

We highly approve this little book; which is so perfectly plain, easy, and simple, that, with the assistance only of a grammar and a moderate degree of industry, a young student might almost of himself gain from it a tolerable insight into the principles of the Greek language. The sentences, beginning with the regular verbs, and going on progressively through the several tenses, moods, and voices of the compound, the irregular, and the contracted, are selected with judgment, and arranged with considerable attention to those most essential requisite in all elementary works, conciseness and perspicuity. Some of the easiest passages from Herodotus and Xenophon, as well as certain of the Greek Epigrams, are interspersed; so that the attention is kept up by the continual variety of the subject, as well as the frequent

frequent change of style. At the end is a set of explanations of the most difficult passages, with directions well calculated to assist the young scholar in finding out the true etymology of compounds, and to initiate him in the habit of studying his author critically and grammatically. We feel disposed, therefore, to give a vote of decided approbation to a book containing so much utility in so confined a compass, and so highly calculated to facilitate the introduction to the most profound and difficult but finest language of antiquity.

POETRY.

Art. 19. *Metrical Essays.* By John Ambrose Williams. Cr. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Wood. 1815.

'The following rhymes have no pretensions to the praise due to exalted excellence; they are the earliest effusions of a very young muse; but such as they are, I am not ashamed to avow them as the juvenile offspring of a mind indebted to little except its own assiduity for whatever degree of superiority it may possess over absolute ignorance and mere vulgarism.' The wish of the author and that of a few friends to preserve some specimens of boyish composition are stated to be the causes of this publication; which contains, it is said, nothing but 'trifles, and does not invite the eye of criticism.' Why, then, is it published? A few copies privately circulated would have answered all the avowed purpose of the writer: but, in fact, we are so accustomed to these modest disinclinations to public fame in printed books, that we notice them only to deter authors from such unmeaning professions. Some of these little pieces are pretty enough; and we subjoin 'An Elegy on a lonely Grave,' as one of the fairest specimens of that very moderate degree of merit which the volume discovers:

'Ah! who beneath this *lifted* heap
Of mould, with scanty grass o'ergrown,
Is laid in that unstartled sleep,
The living eye hath never known?

'No stone, no record tells us here,
Who occupies this little space;
What virtue claim'd a farewell tear;
Or what poor child of error's race.

'Perchance, though humble be this grave,
Though none may hither come to mourn,
Though o'er the turf no laurel wave,
Nor pompous stands a sculptur'd urn;

'Yet here may Mercy's beams descend,
And angels round its inmate cling,
A thousand raptur'd saints attend,
A thousand harps their music fling.

'Perchance, but now by all forgot,
Some pilgrim hither came — and died;
And Charity supplied this spot —
Thus giving earth, but bread denied.

'No friendly eye, no faithful heart,
May e'er have linger'd near his bed,
And watch'd the trembling spirit part,
To other worlds mysterious led.

'But, tenant of this lonely mound!
Whatever fate 'twas thine to bear,
May'st thou repose in hallow'd ground,
And wake eternal bliss to share.'

"They help'd to bury whom they help'd to starve"

is but poorly imitated in the above; and we find in another poem such a line as

'Consecrated my heart, as an altar to you!'

Art. 20. *A Poetical History of England;* written for the Use of the Young Ladies educated at Rothbury-house School, and dedicated by the Author. 8vo. pp. 154. 6s. Boards. Law and Whittaker. 1815.

Not only may the young ladies of Rothbury-house school derive benefit from this poetical history of their country, but any other young ladies, or young gentlemen, who may chuse to peruse it, may also be improved by so well-adapted a composition. In these initiatory histories, however, we sometimes have encountered many gross errors, and many important omissions; and the versification of such performances has often been so rugged and inharmonious as greatly to frustrate their own principal object, which is in course that of being committed to memory. The copy which we have seen of this publication has many very happy MS. corrections in it; and we recommend the adoption of a few more in any subsequent edition: particularly in such passages as the following, where an incomplete and perhaps an erroneous impression of an historical fact may be made on the mind of the *youthful reader*.

'*Edward* I.

'—— next Scotland fell — bold Wallace fiercely *tried*
To check her fall — but unsuccessful *died*.'

If, instead of '*trying*,' Wallace had been described as *tried*, or rather as condemned and executed, the fact would have been more clearly stated.

NOVELS.

Art. 21. *The Ward of Delamere.* By Mrs. Pinchard, Author of "Mystery and Confidence," &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 16s. 6d. Boards. Black, Parry, and Co. 1815.

That fluency of language and that improbability of incident, which are frequently found in works of this class, are displayed in the volumes before us. The distresses of the fair Magdalena are such as might have been obviated by a little candour and common sense; and they are not terminated by any effort of her own, but by a most extraordinary coincidence, which brings all her relations, who were supposed to be dead or mad, into the same apartment on her wedding-day. Some of the female characters, however, are well drawn. A few inaccurate expressions must be noticed, such as

(vol. ii. p. 267.) 'She stood suspended:' (vol. iii. p. 154.) 'his *acquirements* are immense,' instead of his *acquisitions*, &c. &c.

Art. 22. *La Nature et les Sociétés;* &c. *i. e.* Nature and Society, or Ariana and Walter. By Joseph Lavallée. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. sewed. Berthoud and Wheatley. 1815.

It is here proposed to determine 'whether virtue be innate in the human breast, or whether it be dependent on education or climate.' Perhaps the author's readers would forgive him for having thrown no fresh light on these points, if he had succeeded in producing an agreeable novel: but, by neglecting probability, he has equally failed in both objects. The principal character in the tale is a young woman, who lives in perfect solitude and ignorance till her eighteenth year, and then acquires great skill and knowlege with a celerity which can as little be expected in real life as can the circumstance of being suckled by a lioness; from which the fair Ariana is represented as deriving her surprizing courage. In short, the incidents are those of a dull fairy tale: but the *societies* to which M. Lavallée introduces us are all French; and, being unluckily placed in the kingdom of Guzzerat and at the court of an Indian nabob, the liberty and coquetry of the ladies in these *coteries* are at variance with received accounts of Asiatic manners.

Many oblique eulogiums on Bonaparte are inserted; while the character who displays the greatest turpitude, and causes all the misfortunes of Ariana, is a *Sir Tom Tauben*, the son of an English Lord.

Art. 23. *The Majolo:* a Tale. 12mo. pp. 252. Colburn. 1815.

We have here but the first volume of a novel intended to describe, in an epic form, the effect of innate or instinctive tendencies on the conduct and fortune of individuals. The author appears to have imbibed the craniological doctrines of Gall, and ascribes to his characters occult sympathies and antipathies resulting from native organization. Whether the system be true or false, works of fiction at least will neither add to nor detract from the weight of its evidence.

The scene of the story lies in Sardinia. A free school exists at Cagliari, superintended by the inmates of a monastery, in which the higher sorts of instruction are given gratis; and the peasantry or yeomanry of the island frequently send their sons to Cagliari, to serve as footmen in orderly families, under the condition that they are to be allowed to attend the lectures of this institution. They earn their board and clothing by their servitude, and lay by in their memory a valuable stock of instruction. A pupil of this college is called a Majolo; and the plan of it is imitated from the Temple-school at Jerusalem, where the great Hillel served as a week-boy, while he was studying the law and the Scriptures.

The hero of this novel is a Sardinian Majolo, who begins to relate his adventures to an English traveller: but so many pages are spent in describing the scenery and manners of the place, and so many more in speculative and philosophical reflection on nature and on man, that scarcely any adventure of consequence has yet had room to occur. We must therefore defer, until future volumes appear, any opinion of the story.

A short extract will serve to evolve the author's system:

'"This

'"This was a still more extraordinary case than any thing I had yet met with. When the boy called on me by appointment next day, he freely told me that he could not help himself. When any thing caught his fancy he could not rest until he had obtained possession of it, and that he felt an unaccountable pleasure in concealing what he had purloined; but said he, 'the other midshipmen and officers often do the same sort of tricks, yet somehow not so secretly, and they have no pleasure in concealing what they take any longer than until they have made the owners almost angry; but the more I observe them growing angry at me, I am the more induced to hide what I have stolen.' Both the sentiment and manner of this declaration was affectingly simple. I might almost say it would not be easy to conceive that any thing could be uttered with more innocency. In what, thought I, does the vice of the boy consist? Can that indeed be called a crime which does not offend the conscience? And yet if such a dereliction of respect for the property of others be not criminal, what is vice? The boy observing my abstraction left me, and was sent the same day on board a vessel on the point of sailing to England.

'"It would be useless to describe to you the perplexity in which the knowledge of this new peculiarity of organic effect involved me. I call it organic, for there was nothing in the lad's habits to which it could be ascribed as a natural consequence, and therefore I inferred that it was a propensity arising from some accidental distortion of his moral faculties, which might possibly be discovered by a careful examination of the organization of his frame. Thus you see I was led to take nearly the same view of the connections between the moral powers and the physical formation, which Dr. Gall has since done, and attempted, in consequence, to establish a new science. But there is this difference in our respective systems, that while he affects to demonstrate every mental quality by the structure of the head, I only venture to think that in estimating the intellectual character by external peculiarities, the structure of the whole person ought to be considered. I became the more convinced of this by afterwards carefully inspecting the great works of art. It appeared to me that the sculptors of antiquity, and the painters of Leo the Tenth's time, had an intuitive perception of the truth of what I call *my* science, and that there is often as much character to be seen in the form of the limbs and body as in that of the head—nay more, that every just representation of an intellectual movement is as uniformly expressed, by all the other active muscles of the body, as by those of the face. By observing this fact in nature, I soon acquired some reputation for my skill in virtu. I had no knowledge of drawing, upon which at this period the Italians affected to rest the chief merits of painting, but I readily perceived when a hand was in unison with a head, and by attending to the same rule by which I judged of character, my taste in historical painting speedily came to be held in some degree of estimation.

'"But the main principle, which I deduced from the poor little midshipman's propensity, was one of some importance to the consideration of crimes and punishments. It seemed to me perfectly certain, that no punishment which could be inflicted would have had

the

the slightest effect in preventing the secretion of the diseased humour of his mind, for such his disposition to pilfer may, without any great violence of metaphor, be called." '

We are not admirers of this new criminal legislation, which proposes to contemplate theft as a secretion that will proceed with the same activity, whether there are or are not prisons for the light-fingered partisans of forcible alienation.

BOTANY.

Art. 24. *Botanical Illustrations of the Twenty-four Classes of the Linnæan System of Vegetables*, by select Specimens of English Plants. 24mo. pp. 96. Price 6s. Bound, or 5s. in Boards. Darton and Co.

This minikin volume will furnish an easy and pleasing guide to the botanical tyro, and afford him a familiar introduction to a knowlege of the scientific divisions of the classes. The descriptions and definitions are expressed with perspicuity and neatness, and the coloured representations of the selected specimens are, for the most part, sufficiently accurate. In a few instances, however, the lines are either too faint or over-charged, as in the wild germander, English hyacinth, fox-glove, and common daisy; and in some others, as the bramble, ground-ivy, &c. we remark a stiffness *not their own*. We submit it to the author's consideration, whether a similar series of illustrations of the orders might not materially contribute to facilitate still farther the progress of the student, and to *scatter flowers* over the dry and forbidding paths of elementary instruction.

BULLION-QUESTION.

Art. 25. *A Comparative View of the present depreciated Currency*, with the Sterling Money of England; shewing the Difference in their Value at various Periods, and the Causes and Effects thereof, &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1814.

Another of the never-ending list of publications on the Bullion-question! This writer, whose name appears from the dedication to be James Norman, has taken much pains to exhibit tables of the comparative value of our sterling money and of the market price of silver at different periods of our history; and he follows up this statement by the curious project of establishing a paper mint, empowered to coin as many notes of convenient sums as may be wanted for circulation throughout the country, with liberty to exchange them for other notes at will, but not to increase the amount. The total quantity thus wanted might, in his opinion, be about fifty millions sterling; and, as he proposes to prohibit the use of all other cash-notes, the consequence would be the acquisition to Government, of an income equal to the interest of the whole, viz. of two millions and a half a-year. Of this he would allow half a million for the expence of the establishment, and he would expect the remainder to come into the government-coffers as clear revenue. In the course of five years, he would reduce the quantity of notes to forty millions sterling; and then, he thinks, their value would rise so as to become equal to that of silver, and a new coinage might take place without loss, to the amount of two millions annually: on the issue of which

he would propose that the establishment in question should cancel a correspondent amount in notes, until our currency was brought back to the footing on which it stood before 1797.

The substance of this proposition is, briefly, that Government should take into its own hands that power which it at present leaves to the Bank of England and the country-bankers. Now it is very clear that, were the present irregular system to continue, and were our banking-establishments to be left in possession of the strange privilege of issuing notes without liability to pay in cash, the profits arising from such a source ought to belong not to individuals but to the public at large. Such speculations are, however, the less necessary, because only one opinion can prevail respecting the expediency of returning, as soon as it is possible, to the former plan of making bank-notes payable in cash; and the majority of persons will be agreed that this highly desirable object is most likely to be promoted by Government avoiding to take any share in the issue of paper, and confining itself strictly to making enactments in its legislative capacity.

Art. 26. *A Letter to the Earl of Lauderdale*, in Reply to his "Depreciation of Paper-Currency proved." By Thomas Smith, Author of an Essay on the Theory of Money and Exchange, &c. 8vo. pp. 114. Richardson. 1814.

Mr. Smith has been known for a considerable time as a writer on the principles of money, the tract mentioned in his present title-page having been published, we believe, above seven years ago. Lord Lauderdale having treated some of Mr. Smith's notions with very little ceremony, the latter now re-pays his Lordship in his own coin, and has no scruple in making use of very direct language; such as, (p. 69.) 'Your Lordship is thoroughly mistaken.' P. 81., 'Your Lordship shews an equal ignorance of the nature and of the common application of the term money.' — Mr. S. divides his pamphlet into three sections, in which he proposes, 'first, to refute the grounds on which Lord L.'s proofs of the depreciation of our bank-paper are founded; 2dly, to investigate the means of restoring our currency to a salutary state; and, lastly, to shew the truth of the opinion that the nation can derive a benefit from persevering in the present system.' His mode of conducting these refutations is to quote long paragraphs from Lord Lauderdale's late pamphlet on our paper-currency, and to animadvert on them by still longer arguments on his own side of the question. Unluckily, neither of the disputants is possessed of the valuable faculty of compressing reasoning within a short compass, or of giving attraction to a subject which of all others stands in need of the aid of conciseness, perspicuity, and (if possible) animation of style. To such writers as these, we would recommend the perusal of the demi-official tract published in 1814 at Paris under the title of "*Lettre d'un Créancier de l'Etat*," as a model of the manner of combining vivacity in composition with solidity in argument, on a subject just as uninviting to the general reader as the merits of our money-system.

Having on former occasions expressed our opinion on the Bullion-question, at considerable length, we do not feel ourselves required to enter at present into any renewed disquisition on it. The fluctuations

ations in the state of exchange, in consequence of the sudden alterations in the aspect of the political horizon, have sufficiently evinced the soundness of the argument that foreign subsidies influenced very materially the price of bullion when considered in exchange for bank-notes. When, in consequence of being once more restored to a state of tranquillity, the liquidation of our arrears of subsidy to the Continent no longer bears down our exchange, we may propose to resume the consideration of the Bullion-question, and to exhibit a comprehensive view of the successive changes that have occurred under the varying operation of political events. At present, the most satisfactory circumstance in the consideration of such matters is, that the restoration of a free trade to the Americans will have the effect of throwing very considerable sums of money into our hands; the sales of American produce greatly exceeding the quantity of merchandise taken in return from France, Holland, and indeed any country in Europe: the result of which is the remittance of large sums to this kingdom for the purchase of British manufactures.

POLITICS.

Art. 27. *The Reduction of the Forces*, with the Full and Half Pay, civilly and politically considered. By Captain Fairman, &c. &c. 8vo. 3s. Chapple.

We have already taken occasion to notice (M. R. Sept. 1813,) the singular proposition which was made by Captain Fairman, whose zeal appears by no means abated, notwithstanding the unkind silence of the heads of our military-establishment regarding the merit of his different representations. He dedicates the present pamphlet to the Secretary at War, and charges ministers roundly with acting on many of his confidential communications, without having the candour or the gratitude to acknowlege it. His complaint is somewhat in the style of the writer whose "Political Portraits" we lately noticed, (M. R. Feb. 1815,) and who lamented the difficulty of conveying pleasant information to the ear of the Prince Regent.

The leading object of Captain Fairman was to dissuade any immediate disbanding of our soldiers at the last peace, and to recommend their being employed for a time in public works; the dragoons as guards to the mails, or as mounted patroles in the capacity of supernumerary constables; while the infantry might work on the highways or canals. — Another prominent object of his pamphlet, for which we expect him to take great credit in his next appeal to the public, is a disapprobation of the conduct of the allies in permitting Bonaparte to retire with life from the last year's contest, and to occupy a situation in which he might find means to carry on a correspondence with his numerous partisans in France. — From various remarks scattered through the tract, the writer is evidently not devoid of the power of offering useful hints: but the misfortune is that he intermingles them with much irrelevant and even indecorous effusions; such as (p. 44.) a wish that Paris had been 'battered about the ears of its inhabitants,' and the Americans (p. 54.) 'flogged into better behaviour,' &c. &c.

Art.

Art. 28. *A Letter to Lord Liverpool,* on the very eminent Importance of Sicily to Great Britain; on the Obligation we have incurred, and stand compromised upon, to the People of that Country, to maintain that Constitution and Independence which we have instigated and aided them to assert and acquire; and on the Necessity, the Efficiency, and Propriety of the Interposition of the Weight and Authority of the British Name in the Congress at Vienna, for this Purpose, and for the maintaining our Influence and Authority in that Island. 8vo. pp. 36. 2s. Asperne.

Ministers have discovered so decided a determination to act on a plan similar to that which is recommended in this title-page, that the case seems by no means under the necessity of being argued. The purport of this little tract is to ascribe the misery of the inhabitants of Sicily to the effects of bad government, to praise highly the conduct of Lord William Bentinck, and to urge a perseverance in the plan of new modelling the management of the public concerns of this interesting island. Among other claims that Sicily offers to our protection, is this, that it is necessary to the supply of provisions for Malta, which is ill fitted to afford the means of support to our garrison, or even to its own population.—We have no objection to the general scope of this writer's arguments, but would drop him a gentle caution when he places such abundant faith in antient legends as to believe (p. 4.) that Syracuse and Agrigentum were each in former days as populous as London now is.

Art. 29. *The Political Memento;* or, Extracts from the Speeches, during the last Six Years, of near a Hundred of the most distinguished Members of both Houses of Parliament, on the Policy, Conduct, and probable Result of the War. By a Parliamentary Reporter. 8vo. pp. 553. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

The extracts in this volume are somewhat less general than the title-page would imply, being limited principally to topics connected with the war in Spain, and the expediency of concluding peace with France at different periods, when it was recommended by the late Mr. Whitbread and a few of the Opposition-members. The selection, which has been made from the Parliamentary Register published by Mr. Hansard, comprizes portions of the speeches of all the conspicuous members of parliament; and the object of the work seems to be a desire to convince the nation that we should have acted erroneously if we had not persevered in the contest, but had listened to the counsels of Opposition. These debates are too fresh in the recollection of our readers to make it necessary for us to undertake to discuss the subject at length, or to point out in what manner the very favourable issue of the late war arose from circumstances unconnected with the merits of our ministers. Instead, therefore, of adverting to the opinion of particular speakers, we shall merely observe that the present selection seems to be formed with sufficient fairness; and that the editor has avoided to fatigue the attention of his readers by extracts of great length, preferring to exhibit the sentiments of each person in detached passages of speeches delivered at different times.

It was curious to contemplate, three or four years ago, the difference of opinion among our politicians with regard to the management

of

of the war in Spain; the Opposition maintaining that we did too much for that country, and the Marquis Wellesley asserting that we did by no means enough: while those who knew how greatly our exertions were cramped by the depressed rate of exchange, and by the miserable inefficiency of the Spanish councils, had little doubt that ministers were contributing all the aid in their power.—The editor of the volume before us does not touch on the impolicy of the seizure of the Danish fleet, or of our Orders in Council in 1807. These acts we have always considered as the great errors committed on our part; and, after having recorded our opinion of them, we have no objection to allow this advocate of ministers to take credit for their arrangements in a country in which they came forwards not to coerce but to deliver.

Art. 30. *An Essay on the British Constitution,* blended with the Laws relative to landed Property, and the personal Liberty of the Subject; &c. &c. By Agricola. 8vo. pp. 103. Printed at Taunton.

This author is avowedly a young man, and does not profess to write on law for any other persons than the unprofessional reader and the attorney's clerk: an acknowlegement which, united with the declaration that his tract was composed for his own improvement, and for the purpose of diverting the *ennui* arising from indisposition, is calculated to disarm the severity of criticism. His essay consists of four parts; the first treating of the commencement of our Constitution during the portion of our history antecedent to the Conquest; the second from the Conquest to Edward I.; the third from Edward I. to Henry VIII.; and the fourth from Henry VIII. to the present time. To this historical sketch the author adds (p. 58. *& seq.*) a few general remarks on topics of a very different nature, such as parliamentary elections, assurances, conveyances, the formation of our courts of justice, the nature of our political constitution, the character of the time in which we live, and finally, by a figure which savours somewhat of the *bathos*, of bills of exchange and promissory notes.—The tract is evidently one of those effusions which the writer, in his maturer years, will consider in the light of a very humble effort.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 31. *Picture of Paris;* being a complete Guide to all the public Buildings and Curiosities in that Metropolis; to which is added, an Almanack of the Pleasures of Paris, in Winter and Summer; containing a full Account of all the Theatres, Places of Amusement, Balls, Fetes, &c. &c. at Paris and in its Environs; accompanied with Six Descriptive Routes from the Coast to Paris, and full Directions to Strangers on their first Arrival in that Capital. Embellished with Maps and Views. By Louis Tronchet. 4th Edition, corrected and enlarged. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1815.

Last year, Frenchmen had reason to be proud of their capital, which possessed matchless treasures; and, if VEDI NAPOLI E POI MORI, *See Naples and then die,* was the passionate exclamation of Italians, similar language might with more propriety have been applied to Paris. This city, however, may now exclaim, *Non sum qualis eram!* The

French

French nation and French capital have both fallen from their proud eminence. Here, in this little volume, 70 pages are occupied by a catalogue of the sculptures and paintings collected and arranged in the Louvre: but this splendid assemblage of art is now despoiled of its chief treasures, exhibiting pedestals without statues, and frames without pictures. From other buildings, other objects are likewise removed.

The section on the mode of travelling in France will be found useful, and so also may that which follows, containing *hints* to continental tourists; some of these hints are indeed alarming, for they shew that at many inns neither the property nor the person of the stranger is safe. Minute directions are then given to the traveller on his arrival in Paris; and ladies are cautioned to be 'on their guard as to *French lace*,' which generally turns out to be of English manufacture. Due notice is taken of Coffee-houses and *Restaurateurs*, (tavern-keepers,) the etymology of which latter word is thus stated by a French author: 'In the year 1765, a cook at Paris began to serve fried eggs, fowls, &c. on little marble tables, without a table-cloth, and had the following inscription put over his door: *Venite ad me omnes qui stomacho laboratis, et ego* RESTAURABO *vos!*' Public Libraries, Museums, &c. also fill many pages: but some alterations in the enumeration of their contents will be necessary in a subsequent edition.

In a sketch of the history of Paris, the embellishments which it received during the short and feverish reign of Bonaparte are summed up, and his future schemes are developed:

'One of the grandest projects of Napoleon was to have opened a new street, ninety feet wide and about two miles in length, extending from the triumphal arch in the Carousel, which was to have stood in the centre of it, through the whole length of Paris, over the ground of the street called rue St. Antoine, till it joined the arsenal and the scite of ground of the late Bastille at the Barriere d'Enfer, there to terminate in a fountain formed of an immense elephant in brass. The street was to have been named *rue Imperiale*. If it had been completed, it would have made the most magnificent street in Europe; and the celebrated words applied to Augustus might, with equal truth, have been applied to Napoleon; "*Lateritiam accepi, marmoream reliqui.*"

Observatories, Hospitals, and Charitable Institutions, Manufactories, Theatres, Bankers, Public Buildings, including Palaces, Churches, Bridges, Prisons, Boulevards, Catacombs, &c. are duly enumerated; after which we have a sketch of Parisian Manners. The environs also of Paris are not overlooked. That part of the work which is called an Almanack of the Pleasures, &c. contains an account of all the theatres, places of amusement, public gardens, and fêtes, in Paris and its vicinity. M. Tronchet has moreover given the Divisions or *arrondissemens* of Paris, with alphabetical catalogues of the edifices and streets. — In short, we may report this volume to contain such information as a stranger may expect to find in a complete guide, or travelling pocket-companion. The maps and views increase its value.

Art.

Art. 38. *The Belgian Traveller*; or, a complete Guide through the United Netherlands; containing a full Description of every Town, its Objects of Curiosity, Manufactures, Commerce, and Inns; the Mode of Conveyance from Place to Place, and a complete Itinerary of the intermediate Country. To which is prefixed a brief Sketch of the History, Constitution, and Religion of the Netherlands; the general Appearance, Productions, and Commerce of the Country; and the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants. Embellished with a large Map and a Plan of Brussels. By Edmund Boyce, Esq. 12mo. 8s. bound. Leigh. 1815.

Travellers collect information for those who are meditating to become travellers, and the embryo-tourist finds these *cartes du pays*, or *guides*, very convenient. Scarcely have the United Netherlands been formed into a kingdom, when all the objects worthy of notice which it contains are exhibited to excite curiosity; and 'the Belgian Traveller' offers his assistance to guide us from place to place, and to be our *ciceroni* on every occasion on which we may be disposed to loiter. With reference to Holland, Mr. Boyce makes the following correct observations in his preface:

'In no country will the tourist be presented with so complete and wonderful a triumph of human industry over the apparently insuperable obstacles of nature. Holland is fairly wrested from the empire of the sea. The power which can truly, and in its full extent, be attributed to divinity alone, has here been exerted by mortal energy; and the inhabitants of the northern provinces have dared to say, and have said with effect, to the raging ocean, "Hitherto shalt thou go and no further, and here shall thy proud waves be staid." A strangely mingled feeling of admiration, pleasure, and fear, pervades the mind of the spectator, when he walks at the foot of some of the immense dykes, and hears on the other side, and only a few feet from him, the surges dashing above his head; and thinks that on the stability of this embankment, depends the existence of many a flourishing town and some hundred thousand souls.'

The account of the Netherlands is not less exact:

'In the southern provinces, the traveller will witness the triumphs of human industry in a less imposing but not less pleasing point of view. He will here be presented with the absolute perfection of agriculture. The fertility of a soil naturally poor, the luxuriance, the productiveness, the uninterrupted succession of crops, are unparalleled in the agricultural history of the world.

'The kingdom of the Netherlands is not, however, destitute of the real beauties of nature. The voyage up the Meuse, from Maestricht to Namur, is only excelled by some parts of the scenery of the Rhine; and the hills of Luxemburg exhibit all the wild and romantic views of Switzerland on a smaller scale.'

Mr. Boyce assures us that he has laboured to render his compilation a complete guide through a country which he has traversed with pleasure; and he flatters himself that his little volume will not be classed among the many flagrant instances of book-making which disgrace the press.

'The account (he says) of the various modes of travelling, the necessary cautions on the road, the principal inns at each town, the time at which

which the different stages and vessels start, the productions, manufactures, and commerce, of every place, and the complete table of coins, are important features of the work.'

Ingenuously is it confessed by Mr. B. that he has not himself visited every town, and that probably some inaccuracies may occur: but in all instances he assures the reader that he has sought the best information, and that the general correctness of his Guide may be trusted.

The volume is divided into two parts, the first of which includes several distinct sections on the boundaries, history, religion, constitution, commerce, &c. of the Netherlands; the second gives directions to the traveller, various routes, descriptions of the principal towns, &c. As a specimen of the minuteness to which Mr. Boyce descends, we copy the section on *Dutch Inns:*

'I will suppose the tourist now arrived at his inn. The room into which he is ushered, whether on the ground-floor, or up stairs, will certainly have a bed in it. It is either contained in a small press, or very neatly concealed in a sliding partition in the wainscot. It is usually sufficiently large for one person, but would ill accommodate two.

'The Dutch inn-keepers are said to be interested and imposing. In the inferior inns, and on the roads little frequented, the traveller will find this too true, but in the best hotels he will have no reason to complain of his accommodation. It behoves him, however, to be civil, for the Dutch landlords and waiters often display wonderful ingenuity in teasing the petulant or assuming traveller.

'On cleanliness the tourist may generally depend. A beautifully white table-cloth with a silver fork and spoon will be put before him, and his sheets will rival the snow.

'Of one peculiarity he should be aware, that the Hollanders very rarely eat suppers, and that the stranger who orders this unusual repast will pay dearly for it. Coffee is the favourite evening beverage of the Dutch, but it is generally water very slightly tinged, and drunk without sugar. With half an ounce they make no less than fifteen cups. The inn-keepers are perfectly sensible that foreigners drink their coffee much stronger, and ask whether the traveller prefers it made in the German way. He must then be careful to specify the exact number of cups which he wishes to be made with the favourite quantity of half an ounce, or he will have it brought to him execrably bad, and at the same time be charged immoderately.'

We are persuaded that any person, who is meditating a trip to Holland and the Netherlands, will find his account in putting this *Belgian Traveller* into his pocket.

Art. 33. *A practical Abridgement of the Custom and Excise Laws*, relating to the Import, Export, and Coasting Trade of Great Britain and her Dependencies; including a Statement of the Duties, Drawbacks, and Bounties, directed to be paid and allowed. The whole interspersed with the Regulations of the several Trading Companies; Proclamations touching War and Peace; Orders in Council; Treaties with Foreign Powers; Reports of adjudged Cases; and various Matters of exclusive official Information; brought down to 5th April, 1814. Second Edition. By Charles Pope, Controlling

Surveyor of the Warehouses in Bristol; and late of the Custom-house, London. 8vo. pp. 888. 11. 5s. Boards. Baldwin. 1814.

In our Number for September 1812, we took sufficient notice of the first edition of this work, and gave our testimony to the success with which Mr. Pope had laboured to afford a clue to the labyrinth of our Custom-house-laws. The present edition contains considerable additions, relating chiefly to the excise, the India-trade, and the regulations under which the ware-housing system has of late years received so considerable an extension; forming now a large and closely printed volume, and comprizing a great mass of materials in a more accessible form than any that we have seen on the subject. The complexity of our Custom-house-laws, the endless succession of changes in the rate of duties, and the fluctuations in the measures of our Board of Trade, have long been matters of complaint among mercantile men. Let us hope that, when the peace of the world is finally settled, we shall see, for a considerable time at least, a stop put to that long list of edicts which, in our days of war and mercantile jealousy, have so greatly embarrassed trade; and that, if circumstances do not permit our Custom-house duties to undergo any material diminution, they will at least be brought into a much more simple form.—In course, a work like the present can be useful only to persons engaged in commerce, such as merchants, brokers, or ship-masters, but to those we think it will prove a very useful assistant.

Art. 34. *A Tour through the whole of France;* or new Topographical and Historical Sketch of all its most important and interesting Cities, Towns, Forts, Castles, Palaces, Islands, Harbours, Bridges, Rivers, Antiquities, &c. &c. Interspersed with Curious and Illustrative Anecdotes of the Manners, Customs, Dress, &c. of the Inhabitants. Embellished with Copper-plates. By John Barnes. 12mo. pp. 112. Darton, Jun. 1815.

We are told in the preface, (dated July 15. 1815,) that these pages were originally written as 'A Key to Walker's Geographical Tour through France;' and the Tour which the title announces is preceded by 'A General Description of France.' It is not, however, accommodated to the above date; for it says that no predominant religion exists in France, and it records Bonaparte's return from Elba to Paris, '*the army and the people generally declaring for him,*' and 'the aged and unfortunate king being compelled once more to become a fugitive,' while it makes no mention of the turn in affairs which was caused by the victory of Waterloo, June 18. The Tour itself may be considered as a kind of school-book for young travellers at home; and the plates represent a Paris Diligence, Cabriolet, French cart, and what may be called the Paris cries.—The concluding paragraph on the State of Society, &c. is devoted to the subject of *French Inns*, which are said to be

'Not at all inferior to the English in provisions, though greatly inferior to them in accommodation, comfort, convenience, and minor appendages. They abound in good eating and drinking, poultry, eggs, excellent wine and fruit in great variety, and all at a very moderate rate; but as to cleanliness of the rooms, sheets, or table-cloths, chairs, tables, and attendants, they are miserably deficient. The bed-room is often the dining-room, the walls merely white-washed,

washed, no curtains; neither soap, water, or towel, to cleanse in the morning, a Frenchman having no idea of it before he breakfasts. Dessein's hotel at Calais must be considered as an exception to this account; it has long been, and is still, the best inn in France. The familiar impertinence of the *filles-de-chambre*, throughout the whole country, is amazing; they enter your room at all times without knocking, stay as long as they like, and will remain while you are undressing; and, if there happen to be two or more, they very coolly seat themselves and converse together; they seem to consider this office as a matter of course, and do not think it at all indelicate or improper. Indeed in France generally, in all ranks, there is a want of that feminine delicacy, decency, and modesty, for which the British are so justly and honourably celebrated; a people without those sweet proprieties of life, however exalted by mental superiority, however extolled for suavity of manners and address, are still a vulgar people. It would be unjust, however, to close this Sketch with an ill-tempered remark upon the French; they certainly are the most lively, good-tempered, and obliging people in the world, and a person can scarcely visit them without coming back much delighted and improved.'

A mass of information is here collected in a narrow compass: but we cannot answer for its correctness. We would not defend the morals of the French, but censure is carried a little too far when it is asserted that 'no such thing as decency is to be found in France.'

CORRESPONDENCE.

Mr. Lofft's letter exemplifies the fault which it attributes to us, since it speaks of a want of *correctness* without specifying any instance of failure: while our hint of plagiarism was surely very gentle, both in expression and in meaning, and was designed only to intimate a similarity, if our memory did not fail us, of which perhaps the writer was unconscious, but which (if it existed) was some diminution of merit as to originality.

Spectator may be right, but proves nothing, and can have no weight under that assumed signature.

Audax will perceive that his intended favour was too late; and we must add that his conjecture is well founded, that no anonymous communications are accepted by us.

E. B.'s candid note is received. Were all authors like this gentleman, our office would be much more pleasing than it is, and more productive of improvement among that *genus irritabile* than we can often flatter ourselves with conceiving it to be.

The "Poems and Imitations," mentioned in the letter from Bath, are *in hand*.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For DECEMBER, 1815.

ART. I. *A Treatise on the Wealth, Power, and Resources of the British Empire*, in every Quarter of the World, including the East Indies: the Rise and Progress of the Funding System explained; with Observations on the National Resources for the beneficial Employment of a redundant Population, and for rewarding the Military and Naval Officers, Soldiers, and Seamen, for their Services to their Country during the late War. Illustrated by copious Statistical Tables constructed on a new Plan, and exhibiting a collected View of the different Subjects discussed in this Work. By P. Colquhoun, LL.D. 4to. pp. 554. 2l. 2s. Boards. Mawman. 1814.

UNDOUBTEDLY, 'the Wealth, Power, and Resources' of Great Britain form a subject of contemplation which is of vast magnitude and importance, of high satisfaction to her friends, and of much interest to all. A treatise, then, on this topic, must necessarily be a task of considerable labour and extent; and the public will be neither surprized nor displeased at receiving such a work in the bulky form of a quarto volume, closely printed, from the hands of Mr. Colquhoun; who has long been known to them as one of our most zealous writers on topics relative to moral and national improvement. His earlier efforts were devoted to an exposure of the thefts and irregularities practised throughout the metropolis, and particularly in the port of London: another of his publications treated on the means of alleviating the condition of the indigent part of the community; and he now gives a kind of climax to his literary labours, by exhibiting an ample statement of the resources of the country at large. The subjects principally discussed in this ample production are our national wealth, our annual revenue, our expenditure, and our debt; the value of our dependencies in the West Indies, and other parts of the world; with a series of observations on the means of finding employment for the officers, the soldiers, and the seamen, who are usually discharged on the conclusion of a definitive peace with France.

A work of this nature must necessarily be in great part a compilation, and the author or editor must rest his claim to

favour on the care and judgment with which he collects his materials, and connects them by appropriate observations. Official papers of great use for particular subjects appear from time to time through the medium of the Reports of parliamentary committees, and extracts from these voluminous documents find their way into our magazines and news-papers: but it would be in vain to look for any publication exhibiting them in a combined and connected shape. Such an object Mr. Colquhoun has now undertaken to accomplish: but he apologizes for omissions or deficient arrangement, in consequence of his numerous avocations as a magistrate, and his solicitude to bring out the book speedily after the conclusion of the late treaty of peace. The materials, he says, were put together in the short space of seven months; a notice that must excite regret with all who are aware of the time and reflection necessary to digest and arrange tables of such importance, even after the fundamental data have become familiar to the author's mind.—We shall first make such extracts and observations as may enable our readers to form a conception of the plan of the undertaking, and shall follow up this exposition with some remarks on the merits of the execution of it.

The volume is divided into fourteen chapters, each of which is of much more substantial dimensions than we have lately had occasion to see in some fanciful French publications, in which the humble term 'section' would have figured more appropriately in their pompous table of contents. Mr. Colquhoun's first chapter, which occupies fifty quarto pages, treats of the population of the kingdom and its dependencies: but here his attempts at accurate returns are checked by uncertainty in the case of Ireland, no correct report of the population of that part of the United Kingdom being as yet made to Government. After having compared the arguments on both sides of the question, Mr. C. puts down the Irish population at four millions and a half; forming, with the twelve millions in Great Britain, a total of sixteen millions and a half. The official return made in 1811 from England, Scotland, and Wales, was so arranged as to point out the relative numbers in towns and in the country:

			In the Towns.		In the Country.	
	Counties.	Towns.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.
'In England	40	861	746,308	4,221,814	979,723	5,317,013
In Wales	12	78	29,416	143,467	93,077	468,321
In Scotland	32	244	139,670	907,431	175,752	898,257
	84	1183	915,394	5,272,712	1,248,552	6,683,591'

On

On comparing this statement with the only other document that we possess of the kind, the return of 1801, we find a larger comparative increase in the population of the towns than in that of the country. The general summary just quoted is followed, in Mr. C.'s work, by extracts (at perhaps too great length) from the population of the different counties of England, Scotland, and Wales; after which we have a list of our principal towns in succession according to their magnitude. We quote a part of it:

	Year 1811.		*Year* 1801.
Metropolis	1,050,000	——	900,000
Edinburgh	102,987	——	82,560
Glasgow	100,749	——	77,385
Manchester	98,573	——	81,020
Liverpool	94,376	——	77,653
Birmingham	85,753	——	73,670
Bristol	76,433	——	63,645
Leeds	62,534	——	53,162
Plymouth	56,060	——	43,194
Portsmouth	40,567	——	32,166
Norwich	37,256	——	36,832
Sheffield	35,840	——	31,314
Nottingham	34,253	——	28,861
Bath	31,496	——	32,200
Dundee	29,616	——	26,084
Newcastle-upon-Tyne	27,587	——	28,365
Hull	26,792	——	29,516
Bolton	24,149	——	17,416
Leicester	23,146	——	15,593
Aberdeen	21,639	——	17,597
Paisley	19,937	——	17,026
Deptford	19,833	——	17,348
Dover	19,128	——	14,845
Ashton-under-line	19,052	——	15,632
Greenock	19,042	——	17,458
Exeter	18,896	——	17,398
York	18,217	——	16,145
Great Yarmouth	17,977	——	14,845
Coventry	17,923	——	16,034
Stockport	17,545	——	14,830
Preston	17,065	——	11,887

Next succeed the totals of the counties in houses and inhabitants, distinguishing whether in towns or in the country, given, not in the sequence of their extent, but in their alphabetical order. We extract the County-population of England:

Counties.	Inhabitants.
Bedford	70,213
Berks	118,277
Buckingham	117,650
Cambridge	101,109
Chester	227,031
Cornwall	216,667
Cumberland	133,744
Derby	185,487
Devon	383,308
Dorset	124,693
Durham	177,625
Essex	252,473
Gloucester	285,514
Hereford	94,073
Hertford	111,654
Huntingdon	42,208
Kent	373,095
Lancaster	828,309
Leicester	150,419
Lincoln	237,891
Carried forwards	4,231,440

Counties.	Inhabitants.
Brought forwards	4,231,440
Middlesex	953,276
Monmouth	62,127
Norfolk	291,999
Northampton	141,353
Northumberland	172,161
Nottingham	162,900
Oxford	119,191
Rutland	16,380
Salop	194,298
Somerset	303,180
Southampton	245,080
Stafford	295,153
Suffolk	234,211
Surrey	323,851
Sussex	190,083
Warwick	228,735
Westmoreland	45,922
Wilts	193,828
Worcester	160,546
York	973,113
Total	9,538,827

The general result of a comparison of the returns of 1801 and 1811 was an increase of a million and a half, or nearly a seventh, in the population of Great Britain; which, after ample deduction for the effect of an improved mode of taking the returns in the latter year, still affords a residue calculated to exhibit a very satisfactory proof of the augmentation of our numbers even in time of war. Our countrymen were not indeed exposed to fall in great numbers in the field: but the pressure of taxes and the dullness of trade must be regarded in the light of serious discouragements to marriage and to augmented population, when compared with the advantages of a state of peace.—The next question, and a very essential one, is to consider in what manner subsistence is to be provided for this rapidly increasing population; and Mr. Colquhoun very properly directs our attention to the improvement of our fisheries:

'Viewing with an attentive eye the progress of population in Great Britain and Ireland at the present crisis, it appears probable that an increase of vegetable and animal food equal to the consumption of two millions of individuals must be obtained from improved cultivation, from fisheries, and from importation every ten years; making an accession of inhabitants in each year equal to a new population of 200,000 souls.

'There

'There can be no doubt of the resources of Great Britain and Ireland being equal to this additional consumption, and the only difficulty that occurs is, as to the practicable means to be pursued for the purpose of making the productions of the soil and the sea keep pace with the progressive increase of the population. Ireland, in this respect, possessing in proportion to its extent much greater facilities than Great Britain, becomes a greater object of immediate attention.'—

'No doubt can be entertained of the productive nature of the fisheries and of the practicability of rendering this nutritious food an article of general consumption, not only in the maritime, but also in all the inland districts of Great Britain and Ireland, to the great comfort and relief of the labouring classes.'—

'The object is of vast importance, since the circumstances of the time are developing every year the necessity of new efforts, in order to find food for an increasing population. To effect this object, the produce of the British and Irish fisheries ought to be increased at least five fold. It may not be too much to say, that it is susceptible of an augmentation of more than double that extent, with the certainty of a consumption for the whole. Except in the maritime counties, fish is but little known to the mass of the people, and forms scarcely any part of their food; although under practicable arrangements it could be furnished at 18l. a ton with a considerable profit, while other animal food cannot at present be procured under 70l. a ton.

'It is lamentable to reflect, that while 45,000,000l. sterling is estimated as the value of butchers' meat and other animal food consumed annually, after a careful investigation, the property created by the labour employed in the coast and river fisheries can only be estimated at 1,500,000l.'—

'In order to remove the difficulties which are opposed to the general consumption of fish, it must be slightly salted, and that species selected which is best suited to the taste of the people. It must be so prepared as to admit of a transit to every part of the interior of the country, without the risk of spoiling.

'Large establishments round the coast, invigorated by capitals and skill equal to the object, could not fail to produce a great accession of property, generated every year by the labour of the people employed in this species of industry. On the return of peace, it would prove an immense resource for the employment of the numerous maritime labourers who must be discharged from the navy.'—

'Upon the whole, with the resources which Great Britain possesses, (exclusive of the immense colonial fisheries) it may be fairly presumed, that from this species of aquatic labour in process of time a new property may be acquired from the seas and rivers equal to ten millions a year.'

Mr. C.'s second chapter, if not more important, calls for more originality of observation, than the first, being nothing less than an attempt to estimate the extent of the public and private property of the empire: an inquiry that affords a wide field to that ardour for calculation which has always marked the writings of this gentleman. He discusses the subject in a

variety of ways, (pp. 55, 56, 57. 124, 125, 126, &c.) of which it would much exceed our limits to render an account: but the substance of his laborious details is exhibited in the following abstract:

		£	£
'England and Wales:	Productive Private Property	1,543,400,000	
	Unproductive - Idem - -	271,500,000	—1,814,900,000
Scotland: - -	Productive Private Property	239,580,000	
	Unproductive - Idem - -	38,500,000	— 278,080,000
Ireland: - -	Productive Private Property	467,660,000	
	Unproductive - Idem - -	87,000,000	— 554,660,000
Public Property: -	In England and Wales - -	32,000,000	
	In Scotland - - -	3,000,000	
	In Ireland - - -	9,000,000	
	In common to Great Britain and Ireland, as, the Navy, Military, and Ordnance Stores, &c. - - -	45,000,000	— 89,000,000
		Grand Total	£ 2,736,640,000'

By unproductive property, the author means waste-lands, plate, household furniture, clothes, public buildings, and what some readers will think is a curious addition, the amount of our specie in circulation.

Chapter iii. is, like its predecessor, of an original cast, and goes beyond the materials furnished by official returns; its object being to exhibit a calculation of the annual reproduction of our land and labour:

'*Estimate of Property created in Great Britain and Ireland in the Year* 1812–13.

	£	£
Agriculture in all its branches	216,817,624	
Mines and Minerals, including Coals, &c. - - -	900,0000	
Manufactures in every branch -	114,230,000	
Inland Trade in all its branches	31,500,000	
Foreign Commerce and Shipping	46,373,748	
Coasting Trade - - -	2,000,000	
Fisheries, exclusive of the Colonial Fisheries of Newfoundland -	2,100,000	
Chartered and Private Bankers	3,500,000	
Foreign Income remitted - -	5,000,000	—430,521,372'

The details of this subject occupy (p. 89. *et seq.*) a number of pages, and include estimates of the property of several distant possessions, such as our widely spread territories in India, which certainly have no claim to be accounted component parts of the British empire. This desire of adding million to million is particularly

ticularly exceptionable in the population-returns; where the sober number of seventeen millions (the amount for Great Britain and Ireland) is raised, in a couple of lines, to nearly sixty millions by the short process of taking credit (p. 7.) for forty millions of Hindoos and Mohammedans, on whom the most sanguine calculator would hardly venture to reckon in an hour of public alarm. — The reader will view with a more favourable eye the returns connected with our home-navigation:

'The insular situation of the United Kingdom affords great facilities in the transportation of produce and merchandize from one port to another. The number of vessels employed in the coasting trade of Great Britain and Ireland, including those in the coal trade, are extremely numerous, and cannot be estimated at less than 3000 vessels of every description, which may possibly admit of the following division:

	Vessels.
From the whole of the Out-ports to the Port of London	700
From Newcastle, Sunderland, and Blythe, with Coals to London	450
Vessels in the Coal Trade to other Ports from ditto - -	470
Vessels employed from Whitehaven and other Ports in the Coasting Coal Trade - - - -	250
Vessels employed in conveying Produce and merchandize to and from one Out-port in the United Kingdom to another	1,200
Total	3,070'

The following table comprizes the number of out vessels, their tonnage, and their crews, employed in trade in the year 1812:

Great Britain and Ireland:—	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
England - -	16,295	1,951,234	124,896
Scotland - -	2,708	231,273	16,300
Ireland - -	1,111	57,104	5,320
	20,114	2,239,611	146,516
Colonies and Dependencies:—			
British Plantations	3,470	216,068	14,971
Guernsey - -	76	8,312	751
Jersey - - -	54	5,369	519
Isle of Man - -	393	9,439	2,273
Totals	24,107	2,478,799	165,030

Chap. iv. also opens a field hitherto untrodden by the calculator, its purport being to compute the mode of distributing the annual reproduction of our land and labour among the different classes of the community. Mr. Colquhoun divides us all into seven classes, exclusive of the army and navy, and thus apportions our relative number and property:

	Heads of Families.	Total persons, comprising their Families.
'1st Class. The Royal Family, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, the Great Officers of State, and all above the degree of a Baronet, with their Families -	576	2,880
2d. Baronets, Knights, Country Gentlemen, and others having large incomes, with their families - -	46,861	234,305
3d. Dignified Clergy, Persons holding considerable employments in the State, elevated situations in the Law, eminent Practitioners in Physic, considerable Merchants, Manufacturers upon a large scale, and Bankers of the first order, with their families - -	12,200	61,000
4th. Persons holding inferior situations in Church and State, respectable Clergymen of different persuasions, Practitioners in Law and Physic, Teachers of Youth of the superior order, respectable Freeholders, Ship Owners, Merchants and Manufacturers of the second class, Warehousemen and respectable Shopkeepers, Artists, respectable Builders, Mechanics, and Persons living on moderate incomes, with their families -	233,650	1,168,250
5th. Lesser Freeholders, Shopkeepers of the second order, Innkeepers, Publicans, and Persons engaged in Miscellaneous occupations or living on moderate incomes, with their families - -	564,799	2,798,475
6th. Working Mechanics, Artisans, Handicrafts, Agricultural Labourers, and others who subsist by labour in various employments, with their families - -	2,126,095	8,792,800
Menial Servants - - - -	- -	1,279,923
7th. Paupers and their families, Vagrants, Gipsies, Rogues, Vagabonds, and idle and disorderly persons, supported by criminal delinquency - - - -	387,100	1,828,170
	3,371,281	16,165,803
Officers of the Army, Navy, and Marines, including all Officers on half-pay and superannuated, with their families -	10,500	69,000
Non-commissioned Officers in the Army, Navy, and Marines, Soldiers, Seamen, and Marines, including Pensioners of the Army, Navy, &c. and their families	120,000	862,000
Total -	3,501,781	17,096,803'

In

In chapter v. we are brought back from these conjectural estimates to official documents, and to conclusions which depend on the grave authority of history; and here Mr. C. has pursued the steps of Sir John Sinclair, in giving an historical sketch of our public revenue from the earliest period to the year 1760. The reign of his present Majesty, having been productive of a very remarkable increase in the amount of our taxes and expenditure, is consigned to a separate chapter, and treated at considerable length. It is indeed curious to observe the rapid augmentation of our annual expence in the four successive wars in this reign; an augmentation originating in two causes, both of very powerful operation, viz. the depreciation of money, and the extension of the force kept in employment.

In the war which terminated in 1763, the annual average-expence, after we have made a deduction for what the peace-establishment would have cost, was nearly £16,000,000

In the American war, after a similar deduction, it was above - - - - 17,000,000

In the war of 1793–4, above - - 33,000,000

And in the war ending in 1814, above 50,000,000

We shall next see in what manner funds were provided for these growing expences. The public revenue has increased during the present reign thus:

Peace.	1761	£8,800,000	
	1762	8,950,000	
	1763	9,100,000	
	1764	9,250,000	
	1765	9,300,000	
	1766	9,350,000	
	1767	9,200,000	
	1768	9,250,000	
	1769	9,350,000	
	1770	9,510,000	
	1771	9,650,000	
	1772	9,850,000	
	1773	10,066,661	
	1774	10,285,673	
War.	1775	10,138,061	
	1776	10,265,405	
	1777	10,604,013	
	1778	10,732,405	
	1779	11,192,141	
	1780	12,255,214	
	1781	12,454,936	
	1782	12,593,297	
	1783	11,962,718	
Peace.	1784	£12,905,519	
	1785	14,871,520	
	1786	15,196,112	
	1787	15,360,857	
	1788	15,572,971	
	1789	15,565,642	
	1790	15,986,068	
	1791	16,631,000	
	1792	19,382,435	
	1793	17,674,395	
War.	1794	17,440,809	
	1795	17,374,890	
	1796	18,243,876	
	1797	18,668,925	
	1798	20,518,780	
	1799	23,607,945	
	1800	29,604,008	
	1801	28,085,829	
Peace.	1802	28,221,183	
	1803	38,401,738	

Net	1804	£49,335,978
	1805	49,652,471
	1806	53,698,124
	1807	58,902,291
	1808	61,524,113
	1809	63,042,746
	1810	66,029,349
	1811	64,427,371
	1812	63,327,432

To these statements of revenue must be added a list of our annual loans:

1793	£ 4,500,000	1804	£14,500,000
1794	12,907,452	1805	22,500,000
1795	19,490,646	1806	20,000,000
1796	31,726,796	1807	12,200,000
1797	54,112,842	1808	10,500,000
1798	17,000,000	1809	14,600,000
1799	18,500,000	1810	12,000,000
1800	20,500,000	1811	16,981,300
1801	28,000,000	1812	26,789,625
1802	25,000,000	1813	64,755,700
1803	14,000,000		

Mr. C. next gives the details of the public expenditure, and, among others, the particulars of the Civil List. A considerable proportion of the sum voted under this head forms the salaries of Ambassadors, Judges, &c. so that the payments made to the members of the royal family are less than they might appear from fixing the eye on the aggregate sum.

The actual Sums paid to all the Branches of the Royal Family, on the 5th January 1802, stood as follows, viz.:

		per Annum.	
From the Civil List.	His Majesty's privy Purse	£60,000	
	Her Majesty the Queen	58,000	
	His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales	60,000	
	Her Royal Highness the Princess Charlotte of Wales	6,000	
	The Duchess Dowager of Cumberland	4,000	£188,000
From the Consolidated Fund.	His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales	£65,000	
	His Royal Highness the Duke of Gloucester	17,000	
	The Duke of York	14,000	
	The Duchess of York	4,000	
	The Dukes of Clarence, Kent, Cumberland, Cambridge, and Sussex, each £12,000, since augmented to £18,000 each	60,000	
			160,000
			£348,000

This

This statement is applicable to the present times, with scarcely any addition except that of 9,000l. a-year to each of the four Princesses.

We have now accompanied Mr. C. through half his volume; and, as the latter half treats not of Great Britain and Ireland but of our foreign dependencies, a cursory notice will suffice with regard to possessions of such inferior importance as a source of national power. After having appropriated a short chapter to Gibraltar, Malta, and our other dependencies in Europe, all of which Mr. C. admits to be attended with great expence to the parent-state, he bestows a few pages on Canada, and proceeds, in the next place, to treat at much greater length on our West-India settlements. With this part of the subject, Mr. C. and his coadjutor, named in his preface, appear to be particularly conversant: but we do not altogether coincide with them, and it seems proper to explain specifically the points on which we are at issue. The great line of distinction between our respective views regards the fundamental question whether colonies, in the state of our West-India settlements, are or are not advantageous to the mother-country. The vast majority of our merchants think with Mr. Colquhoun that monopoly is highly lucrative, and that to relax its restrictions would be little else than to give away a portion of our profits. We, on the other hand, founding our opinion equally on the general principles of trade and the appearance of a vast increase of *our profit* in our commerce with the United States, are inclined to believe that a gradual relaxation of monoply would be equally beneficial to the colonies and the mother-country. By leaving them more at liberty in the purchase of their supplies and the sale of their products, we should enable them to increase their capital; or, in other words, to extend their consumption of our manufactures, and to improve in that most material point, their ability to discharge their heavy debts to our merchants. The misfortunes of the colonists, whether planters of sugar or of coffee, have been so serious at repeated intervals since 1799, and particularly in the years 1802, 1806, 1807, 1808, and 1811, that many of those who were once affluent have ceased to possess property, and have become indebted to their London correspondents for a larger sum than their land, their negroes, and their machinery could possibly realize. The remedy for so serious an evil is to be sought not in temporary alleviations, but in placing the planter, once for all, in a situation that may enable him or his posterity to redeem, by a course of successful industry, the immense responsibility which he has incurred.

Mr. C. displays (pp. 324, 325. *et seqq.*) a very proper sense of the hardships brought on both planters and merchants by the embar-

embarrassments of the last war; and he expresses (p. 376.) much more liberal ideas than are generally found among practical men on the impolicy of the slave-trade: but he no where discovers a disposition to co-incide with our notion of the policy of relaxing the monopoly. He perhaps apprehends, as do many respectable men, that to open our West-India settlements to other nations, particularly manufacturing nations, would be to diminish the extent of our own exports to them. Against an argument so strongly supported by appearances, we would quote the evidence of experience in our commercial intercourse with the United States, our sales to which have increased in a most rapid ratio since the æra of the separation. The plain reason has been that the Americans, being at liberty to manage their concerns in their own way, have extended their capital and in course their power of purchase, much faster than if their progress had been cramped by the restraints of monopoly. The danger, it may be said, now is that they will go elsewhere, and seek a supply from countries where labour is cheaper. This matter will soon be brought to the test, and in a way which, we trust, will show that although labour has risen more rapidly with us during the present age than on the Continent of Europe, we have still a decided advantage in supplying the wants of countries situated like our Trans-atlantic colonies or the United States. Our superiority in machinery, in extent of capital, in the subdivision of labour, and above all in habits of regular industry, still enable us to export our manufactures at as cheap a rate as our continental neighbours, and at a much longer credit. The enormous expence of our late wars has certainly shaken the basis of this superiority: but the re-instatement of our money-system and the blessings of a long peace, if such is to be our lot, will not fail to put it in our power to regain, in a great measure, all that has been lost or endangered.

It is fit, however, to add that these observations are intended rather in support of the general principles of commerce than in recommendation of any practical change. We are no advocates for the sudden adoption of new measures, and are generally disposed to wait until the parties concerned are themselves convinced of their expediency. The overthrow of the preponderance of France has again given commercial liberty to Europe, and the restoration of most of the conquered colonies has afforded the West-India planter a prospect of finding an adequate market for his produce in Great Britain. He has therefore at present no reason to dread a recurrence of his late distresses. It is clear that so long as the consumption of the mother-country corresponds to the supply, the evils of monopoly are less seriously felt; and it is perhaps not too much to hope that,

that, before the recurrence of fresh wars and fresh difficulties, the views of our merchants may have undergone a considerable modification in respect to that which is profitable or otherwise in commercial connections.

From treating of our West-India colonies, Mr. C. passes (p. 383.) to our African settlements; and, beginning with Sierra Leone, he expresses great regret that so much of the public money has been wasted in that unprofitable undertaking.

'Colonies and settlements producing little or nothing, — open during every war to the attacks of an enemy, and requiring a constant and regular drain of money from the supreme Government to support expensive civil and military establishments, and a still greater expence in additional military and naval equipments in time of war, in addition to a great waste of human life, arising from a noxious and unwholesome climate, can never be a desirable acquisition to any country. And the more especially, when an abandonment will not preclude a trade with the natives to perhaps as great an extent as the consumption of the British market will require of the articles of exportation, which those countries can furnish.'

A very different prospect is opened in the extensive territory adjoining to the Cape of Good Hope, which combines many of the requisites of a flourishing colony. Its great disadvantages are the insecurity of Table-Bay-harbour, and the inconvenience of Cape Town in point both of climate and naval accommodation: but Saldanha-Bay is free from all such objections, and is consequently recommended by Mr. C. for the seat of government and the resort of our shipping. The surrounding country is understood to be much more susceptible of successful cultivation than the neighbourhood of the Cape.

Our India-possessions form the next topic of consideration with Mr. Colquhoun, and, after having been noticed in the body of the work, are resumed at perhaps too great length in an Appendix of 90 pages. From these subjects he passes to our settlement in New South Wales; a topic on which, from his habits as an active magistrate, he was particularly qualified to form an opinion. We have already taken occasion (M. R. May, 1812,) to explain at considerable length the state of that colony; and in the present details, founded on the Report of a Committee of the House of Commons in July 1812, Mr. C. agrees with us in cordially lamenting that such large sums have been expended on so remote and unproductive a settlement:

'Twenty-two years have elapsed from 1788 to 1810 since the colony of New South Wales was first settled, during which period, or rather from 1787, when the convicts were first embarked, to the year 1813, comprising 26 years, the parliamentary grants for the expence of transporting and maintaining the convicts, including the naval expences and the civil and military establishments, as detailed in

page 222. of this work, have amounted to the enormous sum of 2,465,182l. sterling; through which medium, according to the Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons in 1812, only 5513 men, 2220 women, and 2721 children were in existence in the colony in 1810, making in the whole 11,952 inhabitants, including 1321 in Van Diemen's Land and 177 in Norfolk Island; and of these only from one-fourth to one-fifth part were convicts.

'It appears only necessary to state this simple fact, in order to shew the impolicy of establishing a settlement in this distant region of the world, and the slender expectation from the facts which have been disclosed of its ever proving otherwise than a heavy expence to this country, without any hope of remuneration from its trade or any other advantage with respect to the better disposal of criminal offenders which may not be attained under other arrangements, at one-tenth part of the expence.

'It must ever be lamented, that in the choice of difficulties at the time, the British Government should have been induced to have recourse to such an expedient. None of those valuable articles of commerce are as yet attempted or expected to be produced which can alone yield a profit in Europe, loaded with so enormous a freight as such a lengthened voyage will require. Even if the inhabitants were to acquire the means of purchasing British manufactures, they have no medium through which they could make remittances.

'The ships destined to carry out merchandize could obtain no freights in return. Neither hemp, flax, nor cotton (were these articles abundant in the colony) could enter into competition with the same raw materials brought from less distant quarters of the world, burthened as they must be with a treble freight and a treble insurance, while the wages of labour in the Colony being higher than in other countries must enhance the price of all the productions of the soil. An accession of people, and a trade with the neighbouring countries in Asia and the Pacific Ocean, would not benefit the parent state.'

We have now attended Mr. C. to his fourteenth and last chapter, which possesses a greater share of present interest than several of its predecessors, being appropriated to a consideration of the means at our disposal for providing employment for our officers, soldiers, and seamen, when discharged at a peace. Although these classes fall with less difficulty into a course of employment at home than people generally imagine, and the number to be maintained abroad may consequently be smaller than Mr. C. supposes, we fully agree with him on the propriety of devising the best arrangement for making our distant settlements available to the support and conducive to the comfort of our brave defenders:

'To those who have followed maritime occupations, the prolific fisheries in the Gulph of St. Lawrence and the Bay of Canso hold out a fine harvest, as the reward of industry; while to the officers of the army, whose sole dependence is on their half-pay, and particularly to

to those in the militia regiments who have not even this scanty subsistence, a freehold property in the fertile lands in Upper Canada, the Cape of Good Hope, and the West Indies, would not only afford ample employment, but that species of ultimate ease and comfort which is not accessible in the parent state.

'All the British colonies being now settled with interstices of crown lands between the different farms and plantations, the new settlers will experience few of those hardships and inconveniences, which attached to those who first established themselves in countries without a population or the means of procuring food for the first year. These difficulties are removed, and the expence of forming establishments greatly lessened.

'To the officers and seamen of the navy, whose habits enable them to prosecute the fisheries, a two-fold advantage attaches. While they are enabled to cultivate their freeholds for the benefit of themselves and their posterity, they have a double resource in the fisheries. They would have the monopoly of the British West India islands to the extent of nearly a million sterling, heretofore procured in the British American Seas by the inhabitants of the United States, in consequence of the thinness of the population in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward's Island, rendering it impossible to furnish the necessary supplies. They would also have an equal chance in the markets of Europe.' —

'Where officers are entitled to half-pay, an anticipation of five years would probably be granted by Government in order to form a capital; and, as a further encouragement, the camp furniture of the army and various useful domestic articles taken from dismantled barracks and from ships of war laid up in ordinary, which, although they cost much money, would sell for little or nothing, might be distributed among the settlers, with a view to enable them to furnish their dwellings, and to carry on the pursuits of husbandry and the fisheries. For this boon the nation would be amply repaid by the additional demand for British manufactures, and the increase of trade and navigation, which would be created through the medium of well directed and prolific industry.' —

'The masters, midshipmen, and warrant officers in the British navy comprise a body of men amounting in the whole to 9,000; of these at least 7,000 must be discharged. They cannot expect superior situations in commercial ships; — and if inferior ones were accessible, the degradation and the low wages would render them unhappy. It would moreover afford but a scanty subsistence.'

Mr. C.'s desire of communicating his ideas on this subject was probably a principal reason for accelerating the publication of his book: but, while we do justice to the benevolence of this intention, we can by no means subscribe to an apprehension repeatedly expressed by him, that the restoration of peace will have the effect of diminishing the quantity of British shipping. This notion, entertained by too great a number of our merchants and ship-owners, is founded on the current supposition that the war had the effect of throwing a great increase of

commerce into our hands. On observing the augmented amount of our Custom-house-returns of exports and imports, they are disposed to ascribe to increased opulence that which ought, in a considerable degree, to be referred to the depreciation of money. Our country, we hope and believe, has advanced in wealth during the last twenty years: but the extent of augmentation ought not to be computed by money-statements, since the increased price of articles naturally swells the total of an official return; — and here we must take occasion to remark that Mr. C., in all his various enumerations of our extended resources, fails to make allowance for that most essential item in computations of national wealth. It never seems to occur to him that the land-holder who possesses at the present day 10,000l. a-year is scarcely richer than his father was before the French Revolution with half the income. Yet, if he turned to the Evidence adduced before the late Parliamentary Committee on the Corn-Bill, he would observe, from the reports of repeated witnesses, that, after all the rise that has taken place in rents, our land-holders consider themselves as less wealthy than they or their fathers were at the period which we have mentioned.

Objections might, in strict criticism, be made to many parts of the present work, on the ground of diffuseness, repetition, and deficient arrangement: but the author lays no claim to the character of a finished writer; and a copious index supplies, in some measure, the want of due method in the volume itself. His object we consider to be to do good by diffusing useful information, and this is a purpose calculated above all others to abate the severity of criticism. We therefore limit our animadversions to two leading points; the introduction of too minute details into a number of the tables, and a strain of unnecessary panygeric when speaking of the acts of Government, or the magnitude of our national resources. It may suit the vanity of Frenchmen to be called individually by such high sounding designations as *célèbre, éclairé, généreux*, or to style themselves in a collective sense *la Grande Nation*: but England has long been the land of plain and unexaggerated language. Epithets of amplification were perhaps necessary, or might at least be pardoned, while we stood alone in the contest with France and the Continent: but the time is now come at which we may exercise without scruple that strict impartiality respecting our advantages and drawbacks, which all parties agree in admiring in the historian of a past age. We need not fear that a cool examination of our circumstances, or even an exposure of particular defects, will inspire any feeling of discouragement or any distrust of our means to bear our part in a future struggle.

struggle. The power of a free country rests on too solid a basis to dread investigation; it will be found to stand the most rigid scrutiny, and to be effectual under circumstances in which the resources of stratagem would be tried in vain. Under these impressions, we object to the frequent repetition of such phrases as 'the munificence of the sovereign and the nation,' (pp. 243, 244.) and to those enumerations of our military force which savour of Bonaparte's attempt at stage-effect when he talked of having in arms "a million of men." In treating, for example, of our land-forces, (p. 7.) Mr. C. has put down a total of 721,000, with great gravity, as if local militia and volunteers could with propriety be placed in the same line with our regulars; while, to complete the picture, 160,000 men are added to the above number for the British and *native* army in India.

A still more curious trespass on the same side of the question takes place in Mr. C.'s comments (p. 281.) on the subject of our national debt. He finds means to get rid of all idea of disadvantage or incumbrance from what appears to most people a very serious evil, by the simple expedient of dividing the whole into two parts, domestic and foreign debt. The latter alone is in his eyes a burden; and, as its amount does not exceed 18 millions sterling, the disadvantage seems to him a mere trifle when compared with the good effects arising from owing 600 millions among ourselves. Taxes, according to his very comfortable mode of reasoning, have a tendency to increase the property of a nation by dividing it into smaller shares; so that domestic debt, instead of being a bad concern, becomes at this rate a great addition to the sources of productive labour. It would be needless to dwell long on so extraordinary a position; and, as we are unwilling to part on bad terms with this veteran writer, we turn with pleasure to a topic on which his favourable assurances fortunately rest on a better foundation. We allude to the satisfactory intimation (pp. 19, 20.) that, during the last and the present age, a decrease has occurred in the proportion of our deaths to the total of our population. Specific calculations on such a subject are not easily attainable, but the affirmative of the proposition rests on the undoubted fact of an improvement in the lodging, the cleanliness, and, we believe, in the sobriety of the lower orders.

We conclude our extracts with a few of the most useful tables:

Revenue for the Year 1812.

	England and Wales.			*Scotland.*			*Ireland.*		
Customs	£11,037,451	1	10½	£ 857,744	8	2	£2,456,576	6	11½
Excise	21,812,034	11	5	1,726,900	14	8½	2,195,709	8	7¾
Property Tax	12,091,034	5	6¼	966,790	14	4	- - -	-	-
Land Tax	1,343,576	15	2¼	24,551	10	4½	- - -	-	-
Assessed Taxes	5,678,970	10	2¼	412,977	19	11¾	- - -	-	-
Stamps	4,952,120	9	1¾	348,523	2	5	676,203	16	11½
Post-Office	1,590,372	19	7	167,877	18	0	177,963	5	4½
Miscellaneous	508,856	2	7½	14,526	9	8½	199,363	0	6¾
Gross	£59,014,416	15	6½	£4,519,892	17	7¾	£5,705,815	18	5¾
Off Charges of Management and Compensations, and Allowance to Superannuated and Retired Officers.	3,019,293	10	1	364,293	13	8	883,551	4	6¼
Net	£55,995,123	5	5½	£4,155,599	3	11¾	£4,822,264	13	11½

The total net revenue, in Great Britain and Ireland, is 64,972,987l. 3s. 4¾d.

The following short statement exhibits the different degrees of per Centage paid on the collection of our respective taxes, and may satisfy the political arithmetician that much less money is wasted between the subject and the treasury in this country than in France or the rest of the Continent.

Customs	£7	17	7	per Cent.	Post Office	£22 10 11
Excise	3	17	4	Idem.	Hackney Coaches	12 1 11
Stamps	2	16	7	Idem.	Hawkers and Pedlars	12 18 4
Land and Assessed Taxes	3	19	2	Idem.		
One Shilling in the Pound on Pensions and Salaries	1	12	9	Idem.		
Sixpence on Idem	1	15	4	Idem.		

We hope that, in a subsequent edition, Mr. Colquhoun, by having more leisure to arrange his materials, may class many of them in a manner more favourable to the attainment of useful results.—We select a view of our annual expences for our Navy, Army, and Ordnance, from detached tables, in order to afford a comprehensive glance of their progression during the late war.

Years.	*Navy.*	*Army.*	*Ordnance.*
1803	£10,211,378	£11,786,619	£1,125,921
1804	12,350,606	19,108,859	3,737,091
1805	15,035,630	18,581,127	4,456,994
1806	15,864,341	18,507,518	4,328,144
1807	17,400,337	19,875,946	3,321,216
1808	18,317,547	19,439,189	3,713,071
1809	19,578,467	21,144,770	5,311,675

Years.

Years.	*Navy.*	*Army.*	*Ordnance.*
1810,	£19,829,434	£20,337,080	£3,819,466
1811	20,935,894	21,287,004	4,352,628
1812	20,442,149	25,174,756	4,620,147
1813	21,212,011	33,089,334	4,464,273

Our next and last extract is a statement of the respective numbers of our officers and men in the army and navy during 1812.

'The *Army* may be stated as follows:

	Officers and Men.
Regulars, according to the Military Estimates for 1812 presented to the House of Commons, (exclusive of British Troops in the East India Company's Service and of Foreign Corps) after deducting for Non-Effectives, consist of	193,904
Embodied Militia, from the same Estimates, -	93,212
Total	287,116

'It appears from the Army List, published for the Use of the War-Office, that there are—Officers of the Army, including reduced Officers receiving full Pay - - - - 13,140
Idem Royal Artillery - - - - - - 929
Idem - - Engineers - - - - - - 206
Idem Embodied Militia, taken at about 8 per Cent. upon the Total number above mentioned - - - 6,525
Commissariat, about - - - - - - 200
Total of Officers 21,000

'The *Navy* may be thus stated:

Officers.		Men, including Non-Commissioned Officers,	
Naval Officers	5,113	Seamen -	140,000
Marine Ditto	1,128	Marines -	31,540
Medical Ditto	1,482		
Pursers -	657	Total	171,540
Total	8,380		

With other improvements in a future edition, we shall look for the correction of such errors as M. Bourdonnau for M. Bourdonnais; *the* Mauritius for Mauritius; 95,199, (p. 20.) instead of 1,095,199, &c.; as well as an examination of the very questionable statement (p. 27.) that in the year 1700 the inhabitants of our metropolis amounted to 674,000; a number which, if we are to believe an accompanying estimate, experienced an increase of only 1900 in the long period which elapsed between that date and the year 1750.

ART. II. Mr. Bland's *Collections from the Greek Anthology.*

[*Article concluded from our last Number*, p. 299.] *

WE are now come to a very important division,—that which contains extracts from the Greek Tragedians. It is not our intention at present to discuss either the positive or the comparative merits of the masters of the tragic art; that task would occupy more time and paper than we could now afford: but we flatter ourselves that the selections before us will put our English readers in high good humour with them. We think that considerable judgment has been shewn in selecting, and great taste in translating, the passages here given; though we must notice an exception or two before we proceed to make our quotations.

The translators appear to us to have misconceived the character of Tecmessa in the Ajax of Sophocles. Instead of the humble, submissive, and tender slave, we find a tragedy-queen. What is there in the original to justify the lines,

> 'But yet I boast, as worthy of my line,
> A noble heart?'

or,

> 'Live! I command thee, live, and bring to mind
> All that for thee a loving wife resigned,' &c.:

but we were most displeased with the affectation of the line,

> 'Blot out thy fatal longing for the grave.'

Again, in the next extract, the soliloquy of Ajax, we observe a most singular misconception of the sense of the original. Ajax has been reflecting, in very severe terms, on his own folly in refusing to yield obedience to the Atridæ, and allowing his passions fully to domineer over him. He next goes on to say that every thing in nature bows to superior force; then follow the lines,

> Ἐγω/ ἐπισταμαι γὰρ ἀρτίως, ὅτι
> Ὁ τ' ἐχθρὸς ἡμῖν ἐς τοσονδ' ἐχθραντέος,
> Ὡς καὶ φιλήσων αὖθις· ἕς τε τὸν φίλον
> Τοσαῦθ' ὑπουργῶν ὠφελεῖν βεβήσομαι,
> Ὡς αἰεὶν οὐ μενοῦντα·

which clearly express his determination not to give way, in future, either to violent hatred or to unreasonable partialities. Yet this passage is thus rendered:

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* A rather ludicrous error occurred in our last article, by the printer having mistaken the hasty hand-writing: viz. P. 291. note, for *having caused pain*, read, *having curled hair.*

In

'In youth (ere yet my wayward fits began,
Ere yet by Heav'n deserted and by man,)
If any friend had play'd the torturer's part,
I rag'd, but soon restor'd him to my heart;
Yet so restor'd him, that his changing will
Should lose the opportunity of ill.'

This, we confess, is much above our limited comprehension; and if the present translator has understood the passage rightly, we can only console ourselves with the reflection that all the former translators and interpreters are in the same error with ourselves. It is, however, but justice to say that the other parts of this soliloquy are admirably rendered. — The translation of the lamentation of Electra, over the urn which she supposes to contain the ashes of her brother, is also excellent. The original shews that, if Sophocles had chosen to address himself to the tenderer passions, he would have borne a comparison with Euripides in this respect; and we will not deny our readers the gratification of seeing the most pathetic passage of Sophocles translated, perhaps, as well as it can possibly be rendered.

'Mournful remembrancer, whose orb contains
Whate'er of dear Orestes now remains,
How dead my hopes in thee, but lately sent
A blooming boy to happy banishment;
For now I bear whatever lived of thee
In this small record of mortality!
Oh! had I died, before to foreign lands
I sent thee, rescued from the murderer's hands!
Then had we shared one melancholy doom,
And peaceful slumbered in thy father's tomb!
Afar from home beneath another sky
Thou diest, and ah! no sister then was nigh
To bathe thy corse, and from the greedy fire
Collect thy ashes, as the dead require;
But strangers paid the debt; who now return
Thy cherish'd dust within this little urn.
And have I watch'd thine infancy in vain
With lengthen'd hope, and love that sweeten'd pain?
Shielded thine innocence from dangers rude
With more than parent's fond solicitude?
Ta'en thee from menial hands, myself thy slave,
And rear'd thee, brother, only for the grave?
Now barren all my hopeful cares are made,
Lost with thy life, unfruitful as thy shade.
Oh! thou hast gone, and like the whirlwind's force
Swept all away together in thy course.
Dead is my sire, and I, who lived alone
In thee, no longer live since thou art gone.

Our foes exult; our mother, wild with joy,
(Alas! no mother) hails her lifeless boy;
For whom I waited as my sorrow's friend,
Avenger of his father's timeless end,
But now instead, o'er this sad urn I weep,
Where his poor ashes cold and silent sleep.

'Oh piteous corse! oh! brother, sent to tread,
Before *this wretch*, the regions of the dead!
How hast thou left me to my foes a prey,
How has thy funeral swept my hopes away?
Yet take me, gentle brother! give me room
To rest beside thee in this narrow tomb!
That, as we shared affliction when alive,
Our boundless love may in the shades survive,
While our dust slumbers, mix'd by friendly fate,
Dull and unconscious of a mother's hate.' (B.)

We cannot take leave of this division without saying that it evinces very singular talents for harmonious versification, and a very complete feeling of the beauties of the Grecian drama.

The succeeding class is intitled also to a full consideration, since it contains an ample selection of those Sepulchral Inscriptions which have perhaps obtained for the Grecian epigram its principal celebrity. Of all inscriptions, this species certainly is the most difficult. It must be long enough to commemorate the virtues of the deceased, and the lamentations of the survivors, yet not so long as to wear the appearance of any thing like labour. They who have observed the artificial style of monumental inscriptions, in the present day, will be ready to acknowlege the great superiority of the Grecian epitaph in conciseness and simplicity; and we think that considerable justice is evinced in Mr. Bland's remarks on Pope's productions of this nature.

'The excellence belonging to the Greek inscriptions in honour of the dead, consists in the happy introduction of their names and peculiar characters or occupations. The lines inscribed by Pope to the illustrious dead have been well called "Epitaphs to let." The omission of the name is not their only defect. The virtues so liberally bestowed have nothing in them of discrimination, and would sit equally easy on the shoulders of any other good or great personage. They are "the scourge of knaves" — "honest courtiers" — "statesmen, yet friends to truth" — "uncorrupted e'en among the great,"

"And they are all, all honourable men."

Yet their very names and distinguishing marks of character are frequently forgotten in the rhymes built to their immortality.'

These remarks are very judicious. Scarcely any one of Pope's epitaphs contains a circumstance likely to affect us in favour of the object of its panegyric. In fact, we recollect very few modern epitaphs that are intitled to much praise on this head. In Mason's lines on his wife, the exquisite beauty of the

the language and the harmonious structure of the verse, combined with the interest that is always excited by the decline of youth and beauty, as well as the mild tone of melancholy and religious resignation which pervades the whole, certainly produce a very powerful effect: but we know scarcely a dozen others which deserve similar commendation, and we turn with pleasure to the Grecian school. Perhaps, no piece of Greek poetry of this class is deserving of higher commendation than the lines of Meleager on the death of Heliodora; of which Mr. Bland has given us, as we might expect from his powers of pathetic poetry, a very elegant version. We think, however, that, in wandering a little from his author, he has lost several affecting touches which form a peculiar charm of the Greek. We have attempted a closer translation, which we will transcribe, begging to disclaim all idea of competition with Mr. B. on any other ground than that of fidelity. We ought to add, also, that we agree with Valckenaer in supposing this epitaph to be inscribed to the daughter of the author. Indeed, we are at a loss to guess how Mr. Bland and Reiske, who put a different construction on it, can account for the use of the word στοργη, which they know is never applied but to denote natural affection. — We borrow from Mr. Bland the first line:

"Tears o'er my Heliodora's grave I shed,"
All that love has to offer to the dead;
Sad tears! but o'er her mournful tomb they prove,
The streaming records of paternal love.
E'en in thy tomb I sigh for thee, dear maid,
An empty tribute to thy parted shade.
Where is my darling plant? Death, plundering pow'r,
Death in the dust has laid that fresh-blown flow'r.
Yet take her, earth! lamented, to her rest,
And gently fold her to a mother's breast!*

* The following has been handed to us as another version of this beautiful epitaph. It will perhaps, be deemed closer than either of the others; and it has this advantage, that it does not attempt to settle the question as to the *object* of the poem:

Oh! Heliodora! for thy loss I shed
These tears, my last sad offering to the dead.
Tears on thy tomb which, sadly falling, prove
The vain memorials of my hopes, my love.
In vain I mourn thee, dearest, and in vain
To the dread pow'rs of Acheron complain.
Where is my much-lov'd flow'r?—The reckless hand
Of death has pluck'd and mix'd it with the sand.
Earth! Nurse of all! I pray thee, on thy breast
Bid, mother! softly bid this form lamented rest!

We were disappointed by the translation of the lines of Callimachus on the death of his friend drowned at sea; and we think that this failure is particularly hard on that poet, because he has not an atom of reputation to spare. The elegy on the Lavacra Palladis, and a few epigrams, are all that save him from being forcibly ejected from the list of poets. Not a thought in any one of his other productions is worth remembering; and we should scarcely have wondered if we had been told that parts of his hymns were written by Barnes about the time when he first went to college. Yet of these very hymns did Bentley say, "*Hymnorum Callimachi nihil habemus aut simile aut secundum.*" We bless the gods that we have not! We refer our readers for a very elegant but paraphrastic version of the epigram in question to *The Athenæum*, vol. i. p. 382., as we have not room to insert it.

Nothing can be more faithful or more spirited than the translation of the epitaph on Themistocles, from Tullius Geminus:

> 'Greece be the monument: around her throw
> The broken trophies of the Persian fleet;
> Inscribe the gods that led the insulting foe,
> And mighty Xerxes at the tablet's feet.
> There lay Themistocles — to spread his fame
> A lasting column Salamis shall be;
> Raise not, weak man, to that immortal name,
> The little records of mortality.' (M.)

The foregoing translation has the initial M.: but we are indebted to Mr. Bland himself for a very harmonious and elegant translation of Carphylides "On a happy old Man," which we cannot resist our inclination to quote:

> 'Think not, whoe'er thou art, my fate severe;
> Nor o'er my marble stop to shed a tear!
> One tender partner shared my happy state,
> And all that life imposes, but it's weight.
> Three lovely girls in nuptial ties I bound,
> And children's children smiled my board around,
> And often, pillow'd on their grandsire's breast,
> Their darling offspring sunk to sweetest rest.
> Disease and death were strangers to my door,
> Nor from my arms one blooming infant tore.
> All, all survived, my dying eyes to close,
> And hymn my spirit to a blest repose.'

Yet even here we have to complain of the besetting sin of amplification. Will Mr. Bland allow us to draw him nearer to the original, by reading, instead of the second and following lines of his translation, thus?

Nought

Nought e'en in death have I that asks a tear.
One tender partner, of an equal age,
And children's children cheer'd my pilgrimage;
Three manly sons in nuptial ties I blest,
And often, pillow'd on their grandsire's breast,
Their darling offspring sank to sweetest rest, &c.

This elegant poem strongly reminds us of a passage in the Hippias Major of Plato, p 291.,D. λέγω τοίνυν, ἀει, και παντι, και πανταχῦ κάλλιστον ἐιναι ἀνδρι πλουτουντι, ὑγιαινοντι, τιμωμενῳ ὑπο των Ἑλληνων, ἀφικομενῳ ἐις γηρας, τους αὐτου γονεας τελευτήσαντας κάλῶς περιστειλαντι, ὑπο των αὐτου ἐκγονων κάλῶς και μεγαλοπρεπῶς τάφήναι.

In any pieces of a descriptive nature, the Greeks were peculiarly successful. They never overcharged the picture. Whatever is described is fully but concisely described, and its purpose or object plainly told; and, when this is done, the writer never seems to deem it necessary to say another word. He knew, for instance, in writing an inscription for a statue, that his duty was to explain the person whom it represented, and the cause of its erection, not to display his powers of writing; and with this object always in view, he could not fail to produce an inscription appropriate to its purpose, and creditable to himself. We quote an instance or two.

'*On a Grove of Laurel.* (*From Anyte.*) M.

'Whoe'er thou art, recline beneath the shade
By never-fading leaves of laurel made;
And here awhile thy thirst securely slake
With the pure beverage of the crystal lake.
So shall your languid limbs, by toil opprest,
And Summer's burning heat, find needful rest,
And renovation from the balmy power
That stirs and breathes within this verdant bower.'

'*Garden Scenery.* (*From Paulus.*) B.

'This lovely spot old Ocean laves,
And woody coverts fringe the waves;
Happy the art that could dispose
Whate'er in sea or garden grows,
And summon'd to the enchanted land
The Naiads and the Nereïds' band.'

In the division called Dedicatory, we have not found much to approve. We do not perceive sufficient elegance in the originals of *the Fisherman's* and *the Sportsman's Offering*, to intitle them to translation; and in the version of *the Gardener's Offering*, which is remarkable for its simplicity in the original, we have very strong symptoms of the old faults. Instead of

asking Pan in a submissive way, as a working-gardener ought, to accept a few apples from his garden, and a little water from the rock-spring, this magnificent gentleman proceeds in a very grand style:

> 'The fruit ambrosial in thy garden blush'd,
> And from thy rock the living water gush'd,' &c.

The ridicule of this consists in the translator forgetting that the Greek epigrams are all strictly in character, and that a true Grecian poet would never have dreamt of making a common gardener talk of 'ambrosial fruits' and 'niggard urns' and 'living waters.' — *The Poet's Offering* is very pretty:

> 'There hang, my lyre. This aged hand no more
> Shall wake the strings to rapture known before.
> Farewell, ye chords! ye verse-inspiring powers,
> Accept the solace of my former hours!
> Be gone to youths, ye instruments of song!
> For crutches only to the old belong.' (B.)

The *Offering to the rural Deities*, from Leonidas of Tarentum, is also very prettily translated: but we have noticed one or two trifling errors in it. Instead of 'old Arcas,' the translator should have written "old Biton:" the Greek being Ἄρκας ἔθηκε Βίτων, where Ἄρκας evidently means "an Arcadian." The offering to Bacchus is described, in the original, as χισσὸν χλοάνα πολυπλανέος, i. e. a branch of wandering ivy. Instead, then, of the following lines,

> 'Luxuriant on the green entangled vine,
> This blushing cluster to the god of wine,'

we advise Mr. Bland's friend (M.) to be contented with

> And lays the creeping ivy on the shrine,
> A grateful offering to the god of wine.

Biton's gift to the nymphs is also misrepresented. Leonidas tells us that he offered to them σκιερᾶς ἐυποικίλον ἄνθος ὥρας Φύλλα τε πεπταμένων αἱματόεντα ῥοδέων. *The varied flower of shady Autumn, and the blood-red leaves of blown roses.* Mr. M.'s version, therefore,

> 'Each fruit that swells in Autumn's sunny bow'rs,
> Mix'd with the purple fragrance of it's flow'rs,'

might be exchanged for

> Each *varied bud from* Autumn's *shady* bow'rs,
> Mix'd with the *full-blown rose's purpled* flow'rs.

Of the last division, called Satirical and Humorous, we have comparatively little to say. We are very sorry that it was inserted, and

and grieved that the translators took no greater trouble in selecting such epigrams as would have given a more favourable notion of the humour of perhaps the most witty nation that ever existed. Does one atom of wit redeem the unpardonable vulgarity of the following lines?

'*Female Beauty.* (*From Antipater.*) M.

'With the eyes of a mole, and the arms of an ape,
The breast of a chicken and legs of a table,
A strong stomach has he who can look at thy shape.
He may swallow a church who to kiss thee is able.'

or the dullness of the following couplets?

'*On a Miser.* (*From Lucillius.*) M.

'A rich man's purse, a poor man's soul is thine,
Starving thy body that thy heirs may dine.'

'*On a Notorious Thief.* (*From Ditto.*) M.

'Meniscus saw old Cleon's purse of gold,
That purse will Cleon never more behold.'

The translators are much delighted with the Grecian jokes on long noses, and have favoured us with translations of four of them. The first we transcribe, with a version of the same by Cowper; which, though not so comical, is much closer and neater:

'*From Lucillius.* B.

'Heavens, what a nose! Forbear to look
Whene'er you drink, in fount or brook;
For, as the fair Narcissus died
When hanging o'er a fountain's side,
You too, the limpid water quaffing,
May die, my worthy Sir, with laughing.' *

Cowper's version runs thus:

"Beware, my friend! of crystal brook,
Or fountain, lest that hideous hook
Thy nose thou chanc'st to see;
Narcissus' fate would then be thine,
And self-detested thou would'st pine,
As self enamour'd he."

* The first couplet of the original is as follows:

'Ρύγχος ἰχων τοιοῦτον, Ὀλύμπιχε, μητ' ἐπὶ κρήνην
ἔλθῃς, μήτ' ἐν ὄρει ψυχρόν τι δεδεγμένῳ ὕδωρ.

Among

Among the few valuable portions of this section, are some of Cumberland's translations of the more ludicrous parts of the comic writers: but we earnestly advise the total omission of it in the next edition.

We have devoted so much space and time to this collection, that our readers must be almost as well able as we are to judge of its merits and demerits; and it will therefore be unnecessary for us to be diffuse on its general character.

No one can take up the book for five minutes without perceiving that its authors are men of very elegant minds, and very classical taste; and, odd as it may seem, to these very causes we impute the principal faults of their production. They seem to imagine that every thing, which does not wear the fine polish of the poetry of the present day, must necessarily want its elegance; and their luxuriant imaginations have accordingly decked many of the plain homespun articles of Greek manufacture in such splendid dresses, that we could not easily recognize our old acquaintance. Perhaps, however, they judged that these decorations were necessary to please the taste of modern times; and they were doubtless right in making their book as acceptable as they possibly could to the generality of readers. That it will be acceptable, we cannot entertain the least doubt; and, in order to insure a permanence of the public favour, we strenuously recommend a careful revisal of the whole. Many trifling epigrams may be omitted; as for instance,

'*Pleasure and Pain.* (*From Lucian.*) M.

'In pleasure's bowers whole lives unheeded fly,
But to the wretch one night's eternity.'

'*On a Virtuous Man.* (*From Callimachus.*) M.

'Here Saon, wrapp'd in holy slumber, lies;
Thou can'st not say, the just and virtuous dies.'

Occasionally, too, we have remarked a careless expression. It is somewhat strange, for instance, to meet with such a line as this in a translation from the Greek:

'Unportion'd beauty is—the Devil.' P. 121.

The construction of the following couplet, also, is very inelegant:

'And sure the boy himself we see,
To smile and please and breathe in thee.' P. 366.

We are not much delighted with the notion of the Sun 'peering;' an expression which somewhere occurs, though we cannot at present remember the epigram.

The

The notes and illustrations are written in too desultory a manner. We are hurried from Greek to Latin; and, having gone through French and Italian, we perhaps end in a translation of Ossian into verse.

Though we have dwelt unusually long on this delightful volume, we feel confident that our readers will not be displeased at the extensive view of this most fascinating subject to which we have invited them. We feel more apprehensive that the translators will accuse us of dilating too much on those points in their productions which we consider as calling for castigation: but we have already made the best apology for this unpleasant part of our duty. Nothing, we must repeat it, but the high respect which we entertain for their talents, would have induced us to enter so widely on the field of criticism—in the harsher sense of the word; and, independently of the great good sense and good taste which pervade their work, they have given us the best pledge of their readiness to profit by friendly admonition, in having adopted some hints which we threw out in our short notice of the first edition. We allude particularly to their having expelled from their translations several names, to which we objected as exclusively modern. Let them, in a future edition, (and we trust that neither they nor their critics are too old to anticipate several,) exclude, with equal diligence, all purely modern thoughts and imagery:—let them consider the propriety of their favourite plan of interweaving lines and ideas from English writers with their wreath of Grecian poetry, which awaken associations neither relevant nor favourable to the subject that employs or ought to employ them;—and, above all, let them cure themselves of needless amplification. We will not cease to repeat this admonition to them, like the "*Delenda est Carthago*" of the old Roman: since we are positive that they can improve on this head if they will. Their own book abundantly manifests it; and we have ventured to shew them that we do not consider the task of correction as either hopeless or difficult.

We now bid Mr. Bland, and his learned and poetical associates, a sincere but, we trust, not a long farewell; highly grateful for the treat which they have afforded us, and with which, like Philodemus with his Helen, we promise to be contented,

—— "at least 'till they send us a better."

ART.

ART. III. *Memoirs by a celebrated literary and political Character*, from the Resignation of Sir Robert Walpole, in 1742, to the Establishment of Lord Chatham's second Administration, in 1757; containing Strictures on some of the most distinguished Men of that Time. A new Edition. 8vo. pp. 179. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1814.

ART. IV. *An Inquiry concerning the Author of the Letters of Junius*, with Reference to the "Memoirs by a celebrated literary and political Character." 8vo. pp. 118. 5s. Boards. Murray. 1814.

THE writer of these Memoirs was Mr. Glover, the author of Leonidas, whose name is better known to the world as a literary than a political character. He filled no public office; and he sat only for a few years in parliament, (from 1761 to 1768,) at a time when the records of the proceedings of that assembly excited less attention than they have commanded in our own day. It requires some previous explanation, therefore, to satisfy the public that he was admitted to those intimacies, and accustomed to hold that language, on which the editor of the above-mentioned publications founds his claim to the possession of political consequence.

Mr. Glover was born in 1712; and his connections lying chiefly among merchants, he was intrusted with the management of the appeal to parliament, which his brethren in the City deemed it proper to make against Sir Robert Walpole's course of policy in the year 1739. He thus declared, at an early age, his adoption of Whig-principles, and he remained a stedfast adherent to them during the whole of his career. His poem of Leonidas was a juvenile performance; which, on account of its patriotic sentiments, was highly valued by Prince Frederick, to whom Mr. G. continued warmly attached till the Prince's death, in 1751. His Memoirs are consequently marked with all the keenness that characterized the politicians of Leicester-House, and the conduct of George II. is treated with great freedom in a number of passages. Politics, however, have seldom been a pleasant pursuit, and the differences of opinion inseparable from such connections made Mr. G. retire, about the year 1744, from intimacy with many of his Opposition-friends, and confine his attention to the prosecution of his mercantile projects. It was not till ten years afterward that he was induced, by the prospect of the formation of a liberal and efficient ministry under Mr. Pitt, to withdraw occasionally from the City, to resume acquaintance with his friends at the west end of the town, and to commit his political sentiments to paper. At this period, he observes:

'I am now in the 46th year of my age; the ardour of youth is abated; the mind grown stronger by experience, familiar with ill-

fortune both to myself and my country, guarded against the delusion of popularity, and above the pride resulting from the occasional countenance of *unsought* confidence of men in high station, of which I propose to make no further use, than to delineate with accuracy and truth the causes of this nation's fall, which my ill-boding judgment foresees to be inevitable.'—

'I write as I think; I deliver facts as they fall under my own observation; my reflections are dispassionate, thus far at least, that I have conceived no prejudice against any person named in these Memoirs, from any disobligation to myself: far otherwise; I had intimacies to a degree of friendship with most of them; but as those intimacies were contracted on the public account, when that cause was deserted by them, their society was abandoned by me. There was a time too, when I was forsaken by fortune, and endured all the calamity which can befall a man in trade; yet, in the day of distress I returned not to those powerful friends, who were really willing and able to assist me: industry was my resource; I opened a new scene, repaired my losses, and maintained my independence; renewed and extended my acquaintance with the greatest, and by that situation obtained an insight into the springs of those actions and events which I now communicate to writing in the year 1757.'—'To paint folly in the various shades and colours of hope and fear, of exultation, dejection, resentment, and rage, in a vain, dissolute and refractory people, presuming still on an imaginary superiority, yet obstinately blind to its own defects and weakness, to describe subjects without subordination, laws uninforced, magistrates without authority, fleets and armies without discipline in the midst of an unsuccessful war, to set forth the supineness of an effeminate gentry, the corruption of a servile and dependent senate, the ignorance, incapacity, timidity, rashness, pride, and ambition, holding sway by turns at some periods, at others jarring and encountering to the utter confusion of Administration, under a doting, mean, spiritless, covetous, prejudiced, undiscerning Prince, whose decisions, like those of Chaos, serve but to embroil the fray; to display a scene of this nature, and know it to be a representation of the land one inhabits, at the same time to exhibit truth pure and untinctured by passion, requires that unconcern which despair alone can produce in the human mind. It is enough to have lamented, and beyond the means of a private station to have opposed the impending calamity; when the measure of popular vices and follies is full, and, co-operating with selfish and ambitious rulers, renders a nation contemptible, an honest individual who can assuage his aching heart with indifference, may stand justified not less to his own conscience, than to the unmeriting herd.

'Composing such a narrative, and endeavouring to establish such a temper of mind, I cannot at intervals refrain from regret, that the capricious restrictions in the Duchess of Marlborough's will, appointing me to write the life of her illustrious husband, compelled me to reject the undertaking. There, conduct, valour, and success, abroad; prudence, perseverance, learning, and science, at home, would have shed some portion of their graces on their historian's page, and enlivened his cheerful labours; a mediocrity of talent would have felt,

felt an unwonted elevation in the bare attempt of transmitting so splendid a period to succeeding ages.'

However patriotic might be Mr. Glover's feelings, he was certainly not the mildest of men; and the concluding part of the preceding extract is a specimen of a severity which occurs very frequently in these pages. Some allowance is consequently to be made by his readers for the exaggerated medium through which a warm temper is naturally led to exhibit men and measures: but, after having made this deduction, they will find much curious matter in this little narrative; the writer laying it down as a rule to flatter nobody, and to exhibit public characters with unsparing impartiality, or, as a Frenchman would say, *dans un style tranchant et impitoyable*. He begins by animadverting very severely on the conduct of the great Opposition-leader, Mr. Pulteney, who, on the overthrow of Sir Robert Walpole in 1742, had it, he says, in his power to procure frequent and independent parliaments, to restrain the encroachments of the crown, and to throw a large share of influence into the hands of the people: but, instead of aiming at objects of national advantage, this gentleman had very little hesitation in gliding into that identical course of measures which his predecessor in court-favour had been obliged to relinquish. Few characters in history have possessed so much popularity while in office as Mr. Pulteney in 1742, and few had ever become more insignificant than the Earl of Bath in 1744. — Of the same party, but in a much less conspicuous station, was the Duke of Argyle, who had made his military *debut* under the Duke of Marlborough, and commenced his parliamentary career by an opposition to that nobleman. We extract the characters given of him by Lord Chesterfield and Mr. Glover respectively.

'"The Duke of Argyle, though the weakest reasoner, was the most pleasing speaker I ever knew in my life. He charmed, he warmed, he forcibly ravished the audience; not by his matter certainly, but by his manner of delivering it. A most genteel figure, a graceful noble air, an harmonious voice, and elegant style, and a strength of emphasis, conspired to make him the most affecting, persuasive, and applauded speaker I ever saw. I was captivated like others; but when I came home and coolly considered what he had said, stripped of all those ornaments in which he had dressed it, I often found the matter flimsy, the arguments weak, and I was convinced of the power of those adventitious concurring circumstances, which ignorance of mankind only calls trifling ones."

'*Chesterfield, Letter* 205. *Dec.* 5. 1749.' —

'The Duke of Argyle was a man of considerable parts and wit, though by no means so great as appeared from an happy and most imposing manner of speaking in public, where a certain dignity

nity and vivacity, joined to a most captivating air of openness and sincerity, generally gave his arguments a weight, which in themselves they frequently wanted; and many would go away charmed with his speeches, and yet be extremely at a loss afterwards to discover that strength of reasoning which they imagined at the hearing to have influenced them so highly in his favour. To style him inconsistent, is by much too gentle an appellation; for, though from the time he first had a regiment, being under twenty years of age, through the whole course of his great employments, he was never known to sell a place, or even to make those advantages which were universally esteemed allowable and blameless; yet he was in his own person a most shameless prostitute to power, and extremely avaricious: he indeed would sell nothing but himself, which he continually did with every circumstance of levity, weakness, and even treachery.'

These delineations, though in substance the same, differ sufficiently to shew the opposite temper of their authors:—but a much more conspicuous discrepancy takes place with regard to the character of Henry Pelham, who was brother to the Duke of Newcastle, and died in 1754. Lord Chesterfield says that he had as much honour as we can reasonably expect in a minister, especially a minister in the management of the Treasury, "where numberless sturdy and insatiable beggars of condition apply, who cannot all be gratified nor all with safety refused." Mr. Glover sketches the character of this minister with a much keener pen:

'In March, 1754, Mr. Henry Pelham died. He was originally an officer in the army, and a professed gamester; of a narrow mind, low parts, of an affable dissimulation and a plausible cunning; false to Sir Robert Walpole, who raised him; and ungrateful to the Earl of Bath, who protected him. By long experience and attendance, he became considerable as a Parliament-man; and even when Minister, divided his time to the last, between his office and the club of gamesters at White's. I will add a few particulars of my own knowledge; which, from their minuteness, could not have come under public observation, at least, not like many of the above notorious facts.

'In the year 1741, when I appeared at the bar of the House of Commons in behalf of the Merchants against the Commissioners of the Admiralty, I called for a certain letter, which I knew was upon the table. Mr. Pelham rose, and in the most soothing and persuasive manner intreated me not to demand that paper; I persisted the more, seeing he was solicitous to conceal that piece of evidence, and being likewise perfectly well apprised of the contents. He rose again, and assured me, the paper contained nothing to my purpose. Mr. Rowland Frye, who stood by me, whispered me upon this, "The false fellow wants to deceive you." I still persisted; and Mr. Pelham rising a third time, was shameless enough to assure me, that as a friend to the petitioning merchants, he begged the paper

might not be read. This strange debate continued, till the Speaker called out from the gallery, that if the gentleman insisted on the paper's being read, it must; and it was read accordingly, and acknowledged by several members to me, particularly by Mr. Lyttleton, that it was the most material evidence produced that day.'—

'In 1750, Sir John Barnard made that celebrated motion in the House for the reduction of interest from 4 to 3½ per cent. for seven years, and then to 3 per cent. for ever, on all the public funds. Mr. Pelham indeed concurred, but trembled at the undertaking; and I must confess, that as Sir John trusted to mere argument, without the least degree of management, it was a bold attempt. I could appeal to Mr. Onslow, speaker of the House of Commons, as well as to Sir John, that I was the second instrument in facilitating the success of this enterprize. There was but one more, a friend of mine, Mr. Broyden by name, who joined us in combating the whole monied interest in the kingdom; Pelham was awed, and rather discouraged than aided our operations: however, we had influence to prevail on numbers to subscribe, and largely at first; then, by means of those subscribers, who in course were become auxiliaries, the influence grew more extended, and by the help of a little bullying too, the project was accomplished, and three hundred and seventy-five thousand pounds per annum was saved to the nation.

'Sir John Barnard expected, which was more than I did, that Pelham would co-operate with him in the second part of his plan, which was to apply all these savings, and as much more of the sinking fund, as would discharge a million annually of the national debt; others expected that at least some of the heaviest taxes on the poorer sort would be abolished on this happy incident. Pelham might have flattered these expectations in all; I am sure he deceived Sir John Barnard, and amused him with the hope of accomplishing his plan at a proper time, which Pelham was determined should never come: in the mean while Sir John was content with the court and observance paid him, of which the whole Pelham family were ever most profuse, even to servility. I must take notice, that at the time Sir John Barnard made this attempt, 3 per cent. annuities were considerably above par, to the best of my remembrance about 4 per cent., or between 3 and 4. What I call bullying was nothing more than writing and talking, that those who refused to subscribe to the reduction would be paid off, and consequently fare the worse by 3 or 4 per cent. above par; though if the majority had refused, we should have been puzzled to have found money for the putting our threat into execution; and the Legislature's beginning the attempt, without the least provision of money in hand, I call mismanagement, and an imprudent degree of confidence in Sir John Barnard.'

The individual to whom the author was most favourable is the father of the late Marquis Townshend, who, in those days, was plain George Townshend and brother to the well known orator, Charles Townshend. A considerable degree of private friendship subsisted between Mr. G. Townshend and Mr. Glover; who, in his warm language, declares him to be "in person,

person, demeanor, and sentiments, the most manly of all human beings." Mr. G. T. was then one of the members for Norfolk, and did not succeed to his father's title till 1764.—Another personal friend of Glover, but of a very different character, was Bubb Dodington; who, although by this time past the age of sixty, was as desirous as ever to keep in favour at court. Mr. G. thus writes of him in the year 1755.

'The Grenvilles his relations, whom I had long known full of family disgusts against him, now repaired to his house after an interval of many years: and had his nature been capable of consistency, and common prudence directed his only pursuit, a *profitable place*, he might with their support and foundation, his own social accomplishments, wit, plausibility, literature, and long experience in the forms of public business, have stood an eminent character in times like these, so destitute of great men. All these qualifications, with the addition of elegance, magnificence, and wealth, wanting judgment and discretion, could not protect his old age from ridicule and neglect. So necessary is firmness and uniformity of conduct, to procure even from the imperfect part of mankind, the confidence requisite to maintain the unworthy pre-eminence among them.

'Among the last of his friends who did not desert him, I count myself. Public connexions first made our acquaintance; I was well apprised of his temper and character, therefore was never deceived by him: won by his private good qualities, friendship beyond professions, industry and alacrity to serve and oblige, I always kept up my intimacy, and had really more weight with him than any man had, though less than the least of his own interested projects. I was continually with him all that summer (1755). Fox was there frequently, and seemed anxious for Dodington's opinion and advice. I soon perceived the latter trimming between Pitt and Fox, though assuring me that he would unite with no cabal, but stand on his own bottom, and publicly declare his sentiments unbiassed. This I encouraged, wishing sincerely well to a man whose company gave me pleasure.

'When the Hessian treaty was made known, (that apparent job,) and the spirited behaviour of Legge, it at once struck out a plan of opposition. Dodington was among the foremost; Pitt depended much upon him, and was even deluded by Fox, not indeed from any promise, but indications that he would take part with them on the Hessian treaty.'—'The opening of the session was now at hand; Charles Townshend, from the mere pleasure of fishing in troubled waters, enlists under Pitt; the country gentlemen, and the public, add their weight: in the midst of all, Fox quits his place as Secretary of War, and on the 14th of November accepts the Secretaryship of State. As Pitt had for some time past rejected any compromise with the Court on the conditions they proposed, and consequently a resignation of employments, or displacing him and his friends, was expected, Fox holds up these alluring objects to Dodington; he melts at once, passes a few harmless censures on the Hessian treaty when it was debated in the House, makes his court, in the same breath, to

Hanover, shortly after steps into the Treasurership of the Navy, just vacated by his relation and new confederate George Grenville, is marked for perdition by that party, and becomes despised by every other beyond all redemption of character or weight with the lowest faction. I gave him a cold congratulation, having warned him before, that he could go into no office at that juncture without being the most unhappy of men.

'During the whole sessions Mr. Pitt found occasion in every debate to confound the ministerial orators; his vehement invectives were awful to Murray, terrible to Hume Campbell; and no malefactor under the stripes of an executioner was ever more forlorn and helpless than Fox appeared under the lash of Pitt's eloquence, shrewd and able in Parliament as he confessedly is: Dodington sheltered himself in silence.'

One of the most distinguished characters in these Memoirs is Mr. Pitt, with whom Glover was acquainted in the early part of life, and whom he continued to admire throughout, although his unpliant temper appears to have prevented him from keeping up much intimacy with that statesman. It was in 1756 that the unfavourable aspect of public affairs called for a more efficient ministry than that which had stood its ground by compliance with the court, and necessitated the resignation of the Duke of Newcastle.

'The eyes of an afflicted, despairing nation were now lifted up to a private gentleman of a slender fortune, wanting the parade of birth or title, of no family alliance, but by his marriage with Lord Temple's sister, and even confined to a narrow circle of friends and acquaintance. Under these circumstances Pitt was considered as the only saviour of England. True was it, that in the lucrative office of paymaster to the army his conduct had been clear and disinterested. All past offences were buried in oblivion. The love of power, and an ardent thirst for fame, were noble passions, honourable to him, and beneficial to his country, when their views were set in comparison with those which accompany the base attachment to money, the visible bane of our times. His good sense and spirit must surely discover, that neither power, nor fame, can be permanent without the foundation of virtue. His friends and relations shared in the public prepossession, the public overlooking their imperfections, and zealously promulgating their good qualities. Riot and intemperance, or the dissipation of time in idle pleasures, composed no part of their characters. Under Pitt they must be capable and useful in public employment.

'Such were the reasonings and conclusions among men of all conditions; and at this crisis I was surprised one Saturday morning, about the end of October, with a visit from Mr. George Townshend. He told me, he was that instant come off his journey from Norfolk; invited to London by a letter from Pitt, he addressed himself to me for advice at this important conjuncture. I required some further information than either of us then had, of the principles and plan on which

which the new Administration was to be established. We set out from my house in the city to dine with our common friend Sir Richard Lyttleton*, a good natured, generous, and benevolent man, by far the best of his family. We there fortunately met with the principal persons of Pitt's small party, Lord Temple, George Grenville, Elliot, and some others of less note. Pitt himself was confined to his bed with the gout. It was now twelve years at least, since my own reserved behaviour and unpliant principles had kept me remote from this my once intimate and most favoured society. They received me with embraces, time seemed to have made no alteration in them towards me.—

'After dinner I had much private discourse with George Grenville, while Townshend conversed with the rest. Mr. Grenville most frankly revealed their whole plan, consisting of inquiries into past misconduct, the establishment of a militia, the excluding from power unpopular and undeserving men, and sending back the foreign forces, whose presence was now grown irksome to a kingdom recovered from its fright. —

'I took my leave, with Townshend, to lodge that night at his house. We compared the informations we had severally received, and studied the list which was to compose the new Administration. I observed that Dodington was annihilated to make room for George Grenville, and that the very honourable office of Treasurer of the Household was allotted to Mr. Townshend. We were both much chagrined at the thought of continuing Holdernesse Secretary of State; we had no other objection to the distribution of offices upon the paper before us: Townshend would not acquiesce, but wrote that night to Lord Temple, assuring him, that all his services should be devoted to support the proposed plan of public measures; but that, if Holdernesse was to remain Secretary of State, he must excuse himself coming into any employment. While he was busied in writing, I set down my sentiments in the following manner, which I here transcribe, in the original phrase, uncorrected and unpolished.

'1. Mr. Pitt should insist on a militia, and the dismission of the foreign troops, — on the strictest inquiry into past misconduct, — and make a reserve, absolutely not to involve the nation with the continent, in case he should at any time disapprove of such a measure.

'2. He should insist on displacing all the efficient officers of the last Administration, and all others of every kind who are obnoxious to the public.

'3. He must not give up one of these points to the King. In the present calamitous crisis, it is indispensably necessary, not only that the King should not be master; but that he should know and feel, he is not and ought not to be so.

'4. This conduct of Mr. Pitt will be universally applauded without doors; if the King will not acquiesce, Mr. Pitt will have done his duty, and will be justifiably disengaged.

'* He died Oct. 1. 1770. He was brother to the first Lord Lyttleton, and uncle to the present Lord Lyttleton. — Edit.'

'5. Calamitous events have set Mr. Pitt in his present high point of light. Fresh calamities will soon succeed, and raise him yet higher, and compel the King to these terms at last.

'6. If it be alleged, that Mr. Pitt should pay some deference to the Houses of Parliament, the creatures of the late Administration, it is answered, No. He should think of no other support, as Minister, in so dangerous a time, but the rectitude of his measures and intentions; if Parliament will not support these, that Parliament may become a victim of public despair, and he have this satisfaction, at least, of being the single man spared by an enraged and ruined nation.

'Mr. Townshend entreated that he might communicate these propositions to Mr. Pitt, without concealing the author. Their first interview was on the Monday following. Townshend frankly declared, that his sentiments upon the present conjuncture were contained in a short paper composed by an old acquaintance of Mr. Pitt's; and on his inquiring who it was, mentioned my name. He was in bed, and so helpless with pain, that Townshend read the paper to him: he gave his assent, excepting to no part, assuring him that that paper contained his sentiments likewise. One circumstance, minute indeed, but serving to illustrate his character, must not be omitted. Mr. Townshend told me, that when he came to the fifth article, which ascribes Pitt's exaltation merely to calamitous events, without any compliment to his abilities or merit, he shrunk back;—Townshend perceiving his pride was hurt, interposed a manly comment, that whatever esteem the author might have for him personally, this was not an occasion to make compliments, but to state facts and argument; Pitt soon recollecting himself, answered, I understand my friend perfectly, I agree with him entirely.

'From these conversations on the Saturday, first with a set of men enlivened by the prospect of power and emoluments,—afterwards with Townshend, more animated still with his own zeal and rapid ideas,—I passed, on the Sunday following, to a forlorn interview with one sinking under the dismal certainty of losing his place, without a remnant of public character, or the least consciousness of public virtue to assuage his wounded spirit; this was with Mr. Dodington at Hammersmith. I candidly imparted to him the great business in agitation, and gave him warning of his own fate. Nothing, indeed, had passed which any party might be ashamed of; nor did I ever find him capable of abusing the confidence of a friend.'

The remainder of the Memoirs is occupied chiefly with the details of Mr. Pitt's first administration, which lasted only a few months, towards the close of 1756, and was replete with difficulty, from his wanting the confidence of the Court. After he had been a short time in office, and found that he was little else than a nominal minister, Mr. Pitt resigned, and recovered at once all that he had seemed to lose of his favour with the people. The Court, who had reckoned that his attempt to defend the obnoxious and unfortunate Byng had shaken

shaken his reputation, was surprized and perplexed at the reflux of his popularity; and it soon became their object to get him back into office, and to give him a substantial share of power: on condition, however, of his allowing the Duke of Newcastle to retain his place. The great question with Pitt's friends now was whether he should remain in opposition, or give his country the benefit of his talents in office, by complying with the unpalatable offer of a coalition. The majority of the public, and of his personal friends, urged the adoption of the latter alternative: but Glover ventured to recommend a different course, and to dissuade his favourite statesman from compromise in any shape; arguing that the Duke of Newcastle would have too much power, having both the King's ear and the command of a parliamentary majority; and that national disappointments were fast occurring, and would probably soon oblige the King to mould his ministry out of materials eligible for their inherent value, and not for their subserviency to the hand that fashioned them. Mr. Pitt was, from temper, abundantly disposed to steer the course which Glover thus boldly advised: but his constitutional ardour was now calmed by the lapse of time; (he was in his fiftieth year;) and he had reason to hope that, by leaving to Newcastle and his friends the patronage of lucrative appointments, he should be allowed to guide those measures which were most important to the public welfare, and to the successful prosecution of the war. Yet he was so far from wishing to hasten his entrance into office, that several attempts at a negotiation on the part of the Duke of Newcastle appear to have been abortive; until, in the middle of the year, the interference of Lord Hardwicke smoothed the existing difficulties, and led to the formation of a ministry which comprized both parties.

We come now to the second object of our article, the Inquiry whether Mr. Glover has a title to be a candidate for the honour of having written the letters of Junius; and here we must confess that our task is much less pleasant than that of examining the Memoirs. The writer of this Inquiry, who is, at the same time, the editor of the Memoirs, is evidently very anxious to persuade his readers of the affirmative of the question; and we have no hesitation in agreeing with him that the claim of Glover ought not to be so peremptorily dismissed as some of the ridiculous pretensions lately set up: but it cannot escape an attentive observer, that this ardent advocate fails in some points of the greatest importance to his argument. Though possessed apparently of access to Mr. Glover's private papers, he has no direct proof to bring forwards; and his reasoning is founded altogether on a comparison of the printed

Memoirs with the letters of Junius, a comparison which is pursued throughout a variety of minute and indecisive particulars. In some places, (such as pp. 66, 67.) stress is laid on circumstances almost undeserving of mention; and the last part of the 'Inquiry' is nothing else than a reprint of passages in the Memoirs, in a way that is little calculated to carry conviction to the mind of the reader. We should have no objection to the plan of dwelling almost entirely on a comparison of the printed works, and of excluding private anecdotes and allegations from such a question as this: but the arguments should have been cast in a general form, instead of being overstretched and frittered away in detail. The leading points in favour of the pretensions of Glover are his time of life, and the character of his political feelings; both matters of considerable weight, but not calculated, we apprehend, to counterbalance the general impression that the letters of Junius were the offspring of a superior pen to that which produced the Memoirs now before us.

Mr. Glover retired from public business in 1775; supporting, as his last political act, a claim of the West-India planters and merchants at the bar of the House of Commons. His death, however, did not take place till 1785, and he left a considerable fortune.

'In his person and habits he was a finished gentleman of the old school, slow and precise in his manner, grave and serious in his deportment, and always in the highest degree decorous; but his natural temper was, though benevolent, at once irritable and violent. He was very strict in his moral conduct, and although he went to the Established Church, was brought up a Dissenter. Before the year 1776 he wore a bag; his wig very accurately dressed, and a small cocked hat under his arm, and in this costume, in fine weather, he constantly walked from his house, in James Street, Westminster, into the City. Afterwards he gradually changed his dress to conform, in some degree, to the fashion of the day.'

Another objection, too slightly noticed in the 'Inquiry,' is the contradiction between Glover's Memoirs and the letters of Junius with regard to the character of George Townshend; who in the former is highly praised, while in the latter he is attacked with much poignancy. At the same time, it is fit to observe, on the other side of the question, that the private letters of Junius to Woodfall, as well as his public addresses under other signatures than the select one of Junius, are calculated to abate considerably the admiration attached to that far-famed name; and to shew that, when not writing with great care and labour, he came nearer to a level with ordinary authors than those who have seen only the most finished part of his compositions would readily imagine.

Art. V. *Æschyli Tragediæ quæ supersunt; Deperditorum Fabularum Fragmenta et Scholia Græca, ex Editione Thomæ Stanleii, cum Versione Latinâ ab ipso emendatâ, et Commentario longè quam anteà fuit auctiori, ex Manuscriptis ejus nunc demum Edito. Accedunt Variæ Lectiones et Notæ VV. DD. Criticæ ac Philologicæ; quibus suas passim intertexuit Samuel Butler, S.T.P. Regiæ Scholæ Salopiensis Archididascalus, Coll. Div. Ioann. apud Cantabr. nuper Socius.* 8vo. Tom. V. & VI. Cantabrigiæ. Londini, Evans.

WE have pleasure in resuming our examination of Dr. Butler's edition of Æschylus*; a work which, on full acquaintance with it, we may venture to rank among the most useful and complete variorum classics on the list. — We shall enter without preface, after our two former articles, into a detail of such passages in the critical and philological commentaries, as appear to us most worthy of attention from the classical scholar; and we shall intersperse our quotations and references with such remarks as occurred to us in our perusal of the fifth and sixth volumes of this elaborate performance.

In the critical notes on the Choëphoræ, with which play the fifth volume commences, the first passage that particularly attracted our attention is a metrical note on the 24th line; where a various reading is defended by a nicety in metre, first we believe detected by Dr. Butler. We mean that on which we touched (in our last article on this subject), relating to the use of pure iambics after particular feet in the choruses of Æschylus. The whole subject, we find, would lead us beyond our limits, on an occasion on which such numbers of classical points are examined and illustrated: but our references will enable the scholar to gain all the requisite information. The note at v. 81. is also metrical; and it presents the same union of arrangement of metre and explanation of meaning with which we were so well pleased in the play of the *Septem Contra Thebas*, as to make a long extract from the passage. This will now be unnecessary; and we proceed, rapidly, (τοσσος ὀχλος ἀμμιν ἐπιῤῥεῖ,) to our long catalogue of successful criticisms.

At v. 203. the scholar will find some explanatory remarks, in opposition to Schütz, that are worth noticing; and at v. 291. a good conjectural emendation of a passage. V. 359. gives occasion to some grammatical information on the changes in orthography; and at v. 447. the want of due attention to the cæsura in Æschylus is properly discussed. At 460. we have an illustration from Shakspeare sufficiently *just*; and the *Mélange* from Henry Stephens, Pauw, Abreschius, Heath,

* See M.R. vol. lxiii. N.S. p. 162.; and M.R. vol. lxxvi. N.S. p. 373.

&c.

&c. &c., at 530. exhibits a good specimen of that condensation of matter, in which the present editor frequently excels. The explanatory note at 626. should perhaps be next specified; and the interpretation and metrical knowlege at v. 650. would certainly lead us into a long extract, if we were not deterred by the reason above mentioned at v. 81.

V. 684. Here we have a little facetiousness; which we have suspected to have been suppressed on several occasions. It seems indeed principally apt to overflow when the editor has to address his predecessor *Pauw*; (*Bone Pauw!* &c. &c.) who, according to the judgment of the Doctor, on some occasions, lays such violent hands on his favourite author, that he appears disposed to exclaim "*Paws off!*" with much energy. We beg pardon for such an irreverent mode of treating any learned dispute: but, when "the engineer is hoist with his own petar," as poor Pauw assuredly is now and then in these volumes, we have not gravity enough to command all our muscles. V. 724. Some critical strictures on a characteristic expression of Æschylus; and we must not pass over this opportunity of giving our meed of praise (*qualecunque sit*) to the editor's frequent discrimination of the peculiar qualities of his author. This operation belongs to the higher exertions of criticism.—747. Some judicious censure of Pauw concludes our string of references to the critical notes on the Choëphoræ; and we advance now to the philological commentary on the same play.

We begin with v. 230. Some previous critics had here discovered a passage subsequently ridiculed by Euripides in v. 537. *et seqq.* of the Electra; and Dr. Butler adds to their observations as follows:

'*Nec solus est aut singularis hic locus, in quo æmulos suos salse vellicant poetæ. Idem ab Aristophane factum millies, ab Horatio sæpius quam nonnullis visum. Sic Ennium derisit Lucilius, Virgilium Bavius et Mævius, Apollonium tetigit Callimachus, Terentium Laberius, Pindaro oblaterabant ignobiles quidam, alii aliis, quos recensere longum esset. Nimirum ita comparata sunt humana pectora, ut in nobismet ceci sumus, in aliis Lynceo oculatiores.*'

At v. 313. the note is explanatory, and emendatory also of Stanley's and Pauw's interpretations; 339. the progress of the word κηλίδος is briefly traced through several senses; 449. we have some neat explanation; 465. is critical, on the word παραφωνος; 666. shews some acuteness, in settling the persons on the stage; and 831. contains, in our judgment, a correct defence of an interpretation by Stanley against the explanations of Pauw and Schütz. Dr. Butler never loses an opportunity of vindicating the scholarship, or of rendering any justice in his power to the reputation, of Stanley; a reputation indeed which

which must be largely extended by his own additional commentaries, and by the highly finished and honourable monument to his memory which is raised in this edition of Æschylus. At 926. we have an ingenious note; and we here close our references to the Choëphoræ, numerous as are those which remain in both divisions of annotation.

From the critical notes on the Eumenides, we should select, in proof of those merits which we have attributed to the present editor, the following instances. V. 114. The criticisms here passed on Valckenäer and Dawes are not only just, in our opinion, but are expressed with that deference for established fame of which the Doctor always presents so right an example. V. 157. The transposition of verses in the Greek tragedies affords a frequent subject for the ingenuity of critics; and the liberties which have been taken in this way by some conjectural Drawcansirs are ludicrous indeed. We need not say that Dr. Butler's annotations are entirely free from such a presumptuous spirit: but, as in the instance before us, he sometimes betrays "the power of art without the show." Some remarks occur on the punctuation of the passage, which are also worth attention. — At line 192. Stanley is properly vindicated from a supposition of Heath, injurious to Stanley's classical knowlege. The note at verse 292. we are disposed to quote; and for a reason which may appear inexplicable to some of our readers:—but we really have discovered so little in these volumes with which we can reasonably find fault, that we must not lose any proper opportunity of pointing out even an omission or a slighter defect:

'V. 292. ΛΙΒΥΣΤΙΚΟΙΣ. Λιβυστικῆς *Casaub. Pears. Pauw. Wakef. Schutz. quod receperim.* Λιβυσσίας *Schol. Lycoph. v. 519. ubi hæc leguntur, quod nec latuit Abreschium.* Σκύθης *item pro* Σκύθαις *habet Schol. Lycophronis.*'

The Doctor ought to have added that his Schol. Lycophron, quotes the passage corruptly thus:

'Εν' ἀμφὶ χεύμα γενθλίου σκότου
Τρίτωνος ἐν τόποις Λιβυσσίοις.'

V. 297. This is an example of the editor's judgment in choosing the most acute of two acute methods (if we may so express ourselves) of defending an established reading. V. 358. Another instance of proper unwillingness to make alterations in the text*. V. 383. A criticism on the word δυθῶται, in which the Doctor seems justified by his quotation,

* Scholars must be desirous (we should think) of possessing the corrected text of Æschylus, which the ill-judged resolution of the University will have compelled Dr. Butler to publish, distinctly from these volumes, but uniformly with them, and as a species of supplement.

as far as that can go to prove his negative; his words also bearing somewhat of the appearance of *a bull.* That the following sentence is at least *tauriformis*, we think our readers must allow:

'*Valde perplexum est illud αὐδᾶται, quæ vox nunquam active significat, quantum video, apud Tragicos. Unicus est locus, Prometh. Vinct. v.* 765. *qui activam hujus verbi significationem ullo modo præstare videatur, sed ibi procul dubio passive accipiendum est.*'

V. 399. This note contains a very full interpretation, and a very sufficient metrical arrangement, of the last three strophes of the chorus, Ματερ ἁ μ' ἐτικτες κ. τ. λ. V. 413. We are again glad to witness a scholar reluctant to make innovations in the text. At 427. we have a concise but useful critical note on the word ἐπιρροιζεις. 484. Some severity on an emendation by Heath; which provokes a '*Dii boni!*' from the Doctor. 528. A new arrangement and explanation of an obscure antistrophe. 552. Metrical again, and successful in emendation. 568. Another correction of a chorus; and we are disposed to agree with the Doctor in his final exclamations: '*Quid his numerosius? quid sententiis gravius? quid imaginibus splendidius? quid verbis ornatius?*' We imagine, however, that our readers will be inclined to consider the general remark, which we before made on these directions to admiration, as in a degree applicable to the present passage. — 570. This is so curious a note, and so illustrative of some causes of mistake in transcribing the antient MSS., that we particularly recommend it to youthful scholars: but the Doctor's principal merit here seems to be that of judicious compilation. — 637. We shall present the larger portion of this note to our readers:

'Περὶ σκήνωσιν, *vestem* σκήνει, *ejus*, (tabernaculo, corpori,) *circumdedit, Wakef. at quis scriptor profanus sic unquam locutus est, vel etiam loqui potuit? Sacri quidem scriptores sæpius hac utantur metaphora, eosque citat Wakef. at fugisse eum videtur, præ festinatione proculdubio, in illa respici ad tabernaculum Mosis, quod, sicut corpus humanum, fragile erat et caducum, cui successit Templum longe sublimius ac firmius, et Christiana religionis lux æterna, ut corpori nostro, post mortem supervenit immortalitas.*'

687. The authority of Professor Porson, on a particular point of Greek orthoëpy, is here judiciously opposed; if we may presume to interfere *tantis litibus.* In 747. we find a sound correction of Wakefield; and at 760. Dr. B. again modestly but firmly dissents from Porson. At v. 790. one of Wakefield's positions is controverted: but due justice is done to his acuteness; as is indeed the case throughout these volumes: — a rare justice, we must observe, and scarcely to be found among the Porsonians of the day.—We must extract the note at v. 898.:

'ΕΥΣΘΕΝΕΙΝ.

'ΕΥΣΘΕΝΕΙΝ. Ἀθινῶν *Rob.* Εὖ σθινῶν *Turn.* Εὐθινῶν *Scal. quod et Stanl. in curis secundis. Verissime, ni fallor. Sic Pauw. Heath. Wakef. qui hanc emendationem pro sua venditat.* Εὐθινῶν *item Schutz. Pors. Herm.*'

Notwithstanding these great authorities, and the Doctor's own '*Verissimè*,' we cannot help adhering to the old Aldine reading of Ἐυσθενῖιν. This word has an allusion to the name of the Eumenides, which (as it seems to us sufficiently obvious,) we wonder that the learned Doctor has overlooked. On such a point, however, we may perhaps best conclude with the worthy Ξένος ἀλήτης in the Œdipus Coloneus:

Τὰς παιᾶ' ὁρώσας ΕΥΜΕΝΙΔΑΣ ὑγιᾶδ' ἐν
Ἕστω λεώς γε· ἄλλα δ' ἀλλαχῇ καλά.

V. 905. τι δυν μ' ανωγας. We deem it necessary to transcribe the whole of this note, as relating to a curious point of Greek criticism, and as difficult to be curtailed with any perspicuity:

'ΤΙ ΟΥΝ Μ' ΑΝΩΓΑΣ. Τί μ' ἂν ἄνωγας *Pors.* 2. *Sed sæpe occurrit hiatus iste. Sept. Theb.* v. 216. Τί ἂν ὁ ναύτης. *Suppl.* v. 312. Τί ἂν ἵτυξιν. *Ibid.* v. 319. Τί ἂν ὁ δῖος. *Soph. Philoct.* v. 100. Τί ἂν μ' ανωγας *Ibid.* v. 753. *et* v. 917. Τί ἴτας. *Ad Eurip. Phœniss.* v. 892. *pro τί ἰ ut editur in Ald. probante Musgrav. Porsonus habet τίν' ἰ atque hiatum post τί tragicos non admittere, eaque quæ adversantur exempla mendosa esse. Quatuor jam ex Æschylo dedimus exempla, tres e Sophocle, ex Euripide unum, et multo plura proferri possunt. Contra Porsonum facit Markland. ad Eurip. Suppl.* v. 109. *qui etsi tales hiatus in aliis verbis nunquam occurrere doceat, plane alius esse rationis monet τί ἂν, τί ἰσὶ, τί ἴτας et similia,* quæ RAPTIM efferuntur ab iratis, mirantibus, festinantibus, dolentibus, &c. qui regulas loquendi non curant. *In eadem eum Markl. et Musgrav. sententia est Brunck. ad Soph. Philoctet.* v. 732. *Locum etiam apud Aristoph. Equit.* v. 150. Τί ἰσί, *a Valcken. frustra emendatum esse censet Musgrav. ubi supra. Nunquam a Porsono discedo nisi pudenter et re satis perpensa, sed non adeo addictus sum in cujusvis magistri verba jurare ut quid liberum et ingenuum deceat obliviscar. Ut igitur dicam quid ipse sentiam, non sane mihi videntur loca illa Sept. Theb.* v. 216. *et Suppl.* v. 312. *ullam emendationem aut interpositionem literulæ ἂ admittere; quod si verum sit, reliqua etiam loca, etsi vel emendationem vel interpositionem facilius recipiant, tamen tuto intacta relinquantur. Quin apud Platonem aliosque solutæ orationis scriptores, semper fere legitur τί ἂν, non τί ἄ ἂν, nec credibile est poetas particulam ἂ quæ nunquam otiosa esse potest, non alia de causa quam ut vitaretur hiatus, ex lingua indole inserere potuisse. Addo aliud: in τί ἴτας ingrata quibusdam videri possit vocalis ι et diphthongi ει concursus, in τί ἰσί prater homœotaleuton erunt quibus displicere possit tenue quiddam et jejunum in concursu vocalium ι et ε, sed in τί ἂν est aliquid plenius et rotundius, adeoque non ingratum auribus, ut ὁπῶν et similia Attici de industria frequentarint.*'

V. 935. We have here a French critic corrected with respect to his own language. These things are pleasant enough to the general

general scholar: but we must observe, once for all, that, if we were to attempt to decide all these points, we should write dissertations on every subject; and that, if we could possibly be held guiltless of presumption, the charge of prolixity must fall with insufferable weight on us. We would also intimate that we do not by any means quote or refer to the editor's opinions, when opposed to those of other critics, as in all cases successfully so opposed: but we wish our classical readers to understand that we are here endeavouring to enable them to exercise their own judgment on the various passages to which we direct their attention; and at the same time to give them (according to *our* own judgment) an example, in many of these passages, of ingenuity combined with manly modesty, in a degree which is truly honourable to the learned editor.

V. 937. touches on the licence to be granted in particular cases to proper names: v. 962. remarks on the word ἀνδροτυχής, and is happily opposed to Wakefield; and in v. 991. a point is discussed with the same critic, with equal skill and good humour.

Notæ Philologicæ in Eumenides.

In turning to this last portion of our present labours, we must be more brief in our notice of a very interesting part of the work than we could have desired.

V. 377. We are pleased with the vehemence and earnestness with which the editor here extols his author. Nothing but this genuine spirit of admiration could have carried him through his laborious undertaking; and when, speaking of the description of guilty fear in this sublime passage, he exclaims, '*Nihil unquam sublimius excogitatum; nec equi Junonis, nec ipse Neptunus apud Homerum gradiens, nec quicquam cujusvis Sacram paginam cum hoc nostri loco conferendum est,*' we would not, on any account, check his enthusiasm by a coldness of criticism which perhaps would be as unjust as ungracious, on the present occasion.

V. 390. This and the following note, as equally short and judicious, we select for quotation:

'ΑΝΘΡΑΙΝ' ΚΑΜΠΤΑΙ. *Miror hunc locum exercuisse viros doctos. Ἄνθρωπος κάμπτει est* Fax Furiarum, *facere illa quibus propriè arrogantur, quæ, quam pulchrè dicantur ἀνθρώπου, nihil attinet dicere.* S. Butlerus.

'391. ΔΕΡΚΟΜΕΝΟΙΣΙ ΚΑΙ ΔΥΣΟΜΜΑΤΟΙΣ ΟΜΙΧΕ. *Cave ne feras hæc ad v. 323.* ἀκούειν καὶ διδάσκειν, *non enim hic de auribus et oculis, sed de clare videntibus et cæcis agitur. Metaphora est a via salebrosa atque ardua, ex qua non modo cæcus, sed ne oculatus quidem se expedire. Optime vertit Interpres Gallicus,* Où marche avec peine celui qui a l'usage de ses yeux, et celui qui l'a perdu. S. Butlerus.'

V. 406. We have here a passage well illustrated by several parallelisms; and at 432. is a correct explanation of the phrase ὄρνον δίδοναι. 473. After the imperfect interpretations of several other commentators, we are satisfied with what is subjoined; and at 476. we have the same species of explanation. 529. A note partly by the learned Müller; not excellent for the elegance of its latinity, but, as usual, sensible and dignified. 634. Philological, on the word ἡμπολημένα; and 637. on παρασχήσειν; both useful in their kind. 655. An explanatory olio from various critics, seasoned at the end by the Doctor; and 805. a very happy illustration, from Shakspeare, of the Δαιμόνων σταλάγματα. *Stillæ venenatæ, Furiarum irâ, in segetes injectæ.*

> "Upon the corner of the moon
> There hangs a vaporous drop profound,
> I'll catch it ere it come to ground." *Macbeth*, iii. 5.

From the same play we have another passage well applied to line 281. of the Eumenides, which we omitted to quote in its place:

'*V.* 281. ΕΚΠΛΑΓΤΟΝ. *Similiter in nobili nostratis Æschyli tragœdia, cui titulus Macbeth. post cædem regis patratam, Macbethus, manus suæ nescius, Act. II. Sc.* 1.

> Will all great Neptune's ocean wash the blood
> Clean from my hand? No, this my hand will rather
> The multitudinous sea incarnadine,
> Making the green one red.

Quod nec fugit doctissimum Interpretem Gallicum. S. BUTLER.'

V. 869. and 889. explanatory notes, and the last passage much assisted by a slight conjectural emendation. 944. A very lucid interpretation; and in 950. we are pleased, in the midst of learned annotation, to meet with the glow of feeling which frequently animates these commentaries: for instance:

'*Omnes arborum fructus, agrorum fruges, et animalium fœtus, h. e. omnia quæ e terra nascuntur, aut in usum hominum aluntur, felicitor provenisse chorus jam optaverat, itaque bene subdit γᾶς πλουτόχθων, ipsi homines, qui terræ divitiis fruuntur, lucrosum deorum munus adorent, h. e. hæc tanta deorum beneficia gratis animis accipiant, et pietatem sacrificiis oblatis ex cultu deorum, ut par est, exerceant. Atque hæc præclare addidit. Nihil enim majus optare potuit, quam ut populus omni rerum copia beatus pietatem coleret. Hinc stat omnium gentium felicitas et salus; hujus semper meminerint populares mei!* S. BUTLER.'

V. 959. relates to the same subject; and with this reference we shall close our specifications.

We could wish, indeed, for room to make some extracts from the *Curæ Secundæ* of Stanley; and we shall feel it incumbent on

on us to do this in our notice of the concluding portion of the work: which, with its Æschylean apparatus of Prolegomena, Indices, &c. &c. we presume will shortly be before us, and to which we shall endeavour to pay an early attention:

"*Sed nunc tempus equûm spumantia solvere colla.*"

ART. VI. *The Works of Thomas Gray*, with Memoirs of his Life and Writings, by William Mason, to which are subjoined Extracts Philological, Poetical, and Critical, from the Author's original Manuscripts, selected and arranged by Thomas James Mathias. In 2 Vols. 4to. 7l. 7s. Boards. Porter, and Cadell and Davies. 1814.

THE works of an author like Gray, edited under the immediate sanction of the University to which he belonged, by a person of the attainments which Mr. Mathias is known to possess, demand more respectful notice than the generality of reprints may seem to require; particularly as the second volume consists wholly of fresh matter, every word of which will excite interest as coming from a writer against whom the greatest fault that could be urged has been that he wrote too little. We are not sorry to have this opportunity of recalling the attention of our readers, from the ephemeral productions which occupy but too much of the time of those who are in the way of temptation from novelty, to the contemplation of a character like that of

"The self-supported, melancholy, Gray."

As a poet, his excellences are so universally acknowleged, and so well understood, that it would be superfluous, and even impertinent, to dwell on them at this period: but as a man he has had less justice done to his merit. Upright in conduct, unimpeachable in morals, sincere and affectionate in all the relative duties of life, and susceptible of the warmest friendships, he has yet been generally considered as an indolent and fastidious book-worm,—impatient of college-restraints, although voluntarily chusing the habits of a monk,—and buried in the acquisition of learning, the fruits of which he was too selfish or too proud to communicate to the world. Before this censure be admitted, we ought to inquire by what test the value of a studious life is to be estimated;—by the amusement which the labours of it may afford those who are too indolent to study for themselves;—or by the advancement of the individual who adopts it, in moral beauty and intellectual vigour. We are too apt to consider man only as he is connected with society. If we owe much to each other, we owe more to ourselves; and we cannot but regard with singular delight a man of Gray's powers and purity of

of mind, of his sublime conceptions and universal knowlege, happy in the solitude of abodes consecrated to learning; holding communion with "the mighty dead;" thoughtless of the applause of the living, not from cynical indifference to them or fancied superiority over them, but from a forgetfulness of every thing connected with self; intent on claiming kindred with the divine nature; and desirous to shake off the vanities and cares of earth, which continually perplex and impede the soul even in her loftiest flights. The work before us furnishes ample matter for the learned and the curious, but it also supplies what we are more anxious to lay before our readers, a picture of the interior of the soul of a good man; his mind enlarged by acquaintance with every branch of human science, and his heart fitted by nature for the softest and fairest impressions of virtuous feeling.

The first of these volumes contains Mr. Gray's poems, and the memoirs of his life and writings as published in the edition of Mr. Mason; who, in displaying the excellences of his friend, has likewise exhibited his own character in its most amiable point of view. If Mr. Mason's general deportment was cold, and his temper somewhat peevish, particularly while under the more immediate influence of the Muse, his attachment to Gray seems to awaken in him feelings of universal benevolence; he warms under its influence; and he catches a spark of that fire which glowed in his friend's verse, and which, could he have communicated it to his own, would have intitled him to rank with the highest of our poets.

Gray's letters are valuable for the intrinsic worth of their remarks; as the vehicles of his undisguised sentiments, they will ever interest all who reverence the union of virtue and talent; and, as specimens of epistolary composition, they are models of vivacity of thought, correctness of judgment, and conciseness of expression.

It is delightful and consolatory to see, in the unrestrained effusions of men of deep thinking, the little connection of mere outward animal gaiety with that inward cheerfulness, that "sunshine of the breast," which encourages our best affections to expand, when they meet with principles and feelings congenial to their own. The letters of Gray and of Cowper exhibit a liveliness and originality of humour, which we rarely find in those of professed wits; and the reason is evident. Letters are generally written in solitude, and solitude is not congenial to those sons of laughter who are accustomed to perform their parts in a crowd: whereas, to such persons as are habitually contemplative, the delight of reciprocal confidence and exchange of sentiment is felt in proportion as it is rare;

betray us into momentary admiration, no wonder that the reality should affect us at any distance of time. If we wished to explain our meaning more particularly on this subject, we would contrast the strokes of nature displayed in some of the Scotish ballads, with the imitations of them, or rather of their simplicity of expression, in Mr. Scott's later poems: but our business here is with Gray, and we gladly return to his excellent observations on some of the peculiarities of our language.

'Another thing, which perhaps contributed in a degree to the making our ancient poets so voluminous, was the great facility of rhyming, which is now grown so difficult; words of two or three syllables, being then newly taken from foreign languages, did still retain their original accent, and that accent (as they were mostly derived from the French) fell, according to the genius of that tongue, upon the last syllable; which, if it had still continued among us, had been a great advantage to our poetry. Among the Scotch this still continues in many words, for they say, envȳ, practīce, pensīve, positīve, &c.: but we, in process of time, have accustomed ourselves to throw back all our accents upon the antepenultima, in words of three or more syllables, and of our dissyllables comparatively but a few are left, as despāir, disdāin, repēnt, pretēnd, &c. where the stress is not laid on the penultima. By this means, we are almost reduced to find our rhymes among the monosyllables, in which our tongue too much abounds, a defect which will for ever hinder it from adapting itself well to music, and must be consequently no small impediment to the sweetness and harmony of versification. I have now before me Pope's ethic epistles, the first folio edition, which I open at random, and find in two opposite pages (beginning with

"Who but must laugh, the master when he sees," &c.

in the Epistle on Taste to Lord Burlington) in the compass of forty lines only seven words at the end of a verse, which are not monosyllables: there is indeed one, which is properly a dissyllable, hēavēn, but cruel constraint has obliged our poets to make it but one syllable, (as indeed it is in common pronunciation,) otherwise it would not have been any single rhyme at all. Thus our too numerous monosyllables are increased, and consonants crowded together till they can hardly be pronounced at all, a misfortune which has already happened to the second person singular perfect in most of our verbs, such as, thou stood'st, gav'st, hurt'st, laugh'dst, uprear'dst, built'st, &c. which can scarcely be borne in prose. Now as to trissyllables, as their accent is very rarely on the last, they cannot properly be any rhymes at all: yet nevertheless I highly commend those, who have judiciously and sparingly introduced them as such. DRYDEN, *in whose admirable ear the music of our old versification still sounded*, has frequently done it in his tales, and elsewhere. Pope does it now and then, but seems to avoid it as licentious. If any future Englishman can attain that height of glory, to which *these two poets* have risen, let him be less scrupulous, upon reflecting, that to poetry languages owe their first formation, elegance, and purity; that our own, which was naturally rough

rough and barren, borrowed from thence its copiousness and its ornaments; and that the authority of such a poet may perhaps redress many of the abuses which time and ill custom have introduced, the poverty of rhyme, the crowd of monosyllables, the collision of harsh consonants, and the want of picturesque expression, which I will be bold to say, our language labours under *now* more than it did a hundred years ago.' (Vol. ii. pp. 62—64.)

It would seem a sort of injustice to the dead to withhold from Lydgate, in this place, the praise which he would have valued so highly had he been living; for who would not be proud of the following eulogium from Gray?

'A second instance of the pathetic, but in a different way, I shall transcribe from the first book, folio 39., to shew how far he could enter into the distresses of love and of maternal fondness. Canace, condemned to death by Æolus her father, sends to her guilty brother Macareus the last testimony of her unhappy passion:

'" Out of her swoonè when she did abbraide,
Knowing no mean but death in her distrèsse,
To her brother full piteouslie she said,
" Cause of my sorrowe, roote of my heavinesse,
That whilom were the sourse of my gladnèsse
When both our joys by wille were so disposed,
Under one key our hearts to be inclosed.

* * * * * * * *

'" This is mine end, I may it not astarte;
O brother mine, there is no more to saye;
Lowly beseeching with all mine whole hearte
For to remember specially I praye,
If it befall my littel sonne to dye,
That thou mayst after some mynd on us have,
Suffer us both be buried in one grave.

'" I hold him streitly twene my armès twein,
Thou and natùre laidè on me this charge;
He, guiltlesse, mustè with me suffer paine:
And sith thou art at freedome and at large
Let kindness oure love not so discharge,
But have a minde, wherever that thou be,
Once on a day upon my child and me.

'" On thee and me dependeth the trespàce,
Touching our guilt and our great offence,
But, welaway! most àngelik of face
Our childè, young in his pure innocence,
Shall agayn right suffer death's violence,
Tender of limbes, God wote, full guiltèless,
The goodly faire, that lieth here speechlèss.

'" A mouth he has, but wordis hath he none;
Cannot complaine, alas! for none outràge,

Nor grutcheth not, but lies here all alone,
Still as a lambe, most meke of his visàge.
What heart of stele could do to him damàge,
Or suffer him dye, beholding the manere,
And looke benigne of his twein eyen clere?" B. i. fol. 39.

'I stop here, not because there are not great beauties in the remainder of this epistle, but because Lydgate, in the three last stanzas of this extract, has touched the very heart-springs of compassion with so masterly a hand, as to merit a place among the greatest poets. The learned reader will see the resemblance they bear to one of the most admirable remnants of all antiquity, I mean the fragment of Simonides (unhappily it is but a fragment) preserved to us by Dionysius Halicarnassensis; and yet, I believe, that no one will imagine that Lydgate had ever seen or heard of it. As to Ovid, from whom Boccacio might borrow many of his ideas in this story, it will be easily seen, upon comparison, how far our poet has surpassed him.' (Vol. ii. pp. 66—68.)

The selection of a passage of such exquisite tenderness does honour to the heart of Mr. Gray. It shews that, amid the sublimity of his conceptions, he lost not sight of the softer feelings of humanity; and that, in the solitude of academic bowers, he still sympathised in all "the social charities of life."

To these remarks on English poetry, succeed some translations, curious observations concerning architectural, Gothic, and Saxon antiquities, and notices on classical subjects. Aristophanes comes in for a large portion of criticism; and his comedy of the Aves is analyzed by Mr. Gray with the easy and sportive gaiety which so often characterize his epistolary compositions.

The third section consists of extracts concerning the antient and modern geography of India and of Persia; and here, notwithstanding the labour of subsequent inquirers on this subject, particularly those of Major Rennell and Dr. Vincent, which are justly appreciated by the editor, Mr. Mathias yet gazes in admiration on this fresh proof of 'that unmeasured erudition, and of that intense study, which, like Milton, (with whose learning alone it is no injury to compare that of Mr. Gray,) he might take to be his portion in this life.'

Next follows an analysis of the writings of Plato, that great teacher, who seemed like a second Prometheus to steal fire from heaven, illumining the gloom of futurity with rays pure as their source, and leaving after-ages only to confirm, by experience of its truth, the excellence of his doctrine. He who makes Plato the companion of his solitary hours may well chuse to forego common society;—and the purity of his views and the sublimity of his genius could not be addressed to one more capable of reflecting them than Mr. Gray, whose whole

life was a practical illustration of the precepts of his great model. His own immediate sentiments respecting the Platonic philosophy would have been invaluable: but, unfortunately, with the simplicity of one who thought more of teaching himself than of correcting others, his notes (though full of learning) are chiefly verbal and critical: by his conduct alone, therefore, we are left to infer his admiration of that matter, the style of which he has undertaken to illustrate.

'Before the reader enters on the perusal of this section,' says Mr. Mathias, 'it is proper that he should be informed of what he is to expect. When the editor first heard that the works of Plato had been the subject of Mr. Gray's serious and critical attention, and that he had illustrated them by an analysis and by ample annotations, his curiosity was raised to no ordinary height. When the names of Plato and of Gray, of the philosopher and of the poet, were thus united, it was difficult to set bounds to his, or indeed to any, expectation. But when the volume, containing these important remarks, was first delivered into his hands, his sensation at the time reminded him of that which was experienced by an eminent scholar, at his discovery of the darker and more sublime hymns which antiquity has ascribed to Orpheus. His words on that occasion are as pleasing and as interesting, as the enthusiasm was noble which inspired them: "*In abyssum quendam mysteriorum descendere videbar, quum silente mundo, solis vigilantibus astris et lunâ, μυσταγωγος istos hymnos in manus sumpsi* *." Many a learned man will acknowlege, as his own, the feelings of this animated scholar.' (Vol. ii. p. 293.)

Mr. Mathias thus proceeds, with his usual felicity of expression and critical acumen, to sum up the merits of Mr. Gray's analysis:

'He never for a moment deviated from his original; as he was desirous only to lay before himself and his reader the sum and substance of the Dialogues as they are, when divested of the peculiar attractions which so powerfully recommend these conversations on the banks of the Ilyssus. As a scholar, and as a reflecting man, he sat down to give an account to himself of what he had read and studied; and he gave it: and it was delivered in words of his own, without addition, without amplification, and without the admixture of any ideas with those of Plato. He made large and valuable remarks and annotations, drawn from the stores of his own unbounded erudition, with a felicity and an elegance which never lost sight of utility and of solid information, without the display of reading, or the incumbrance of pedantic research. He never pretended to have consulted manuscripts, but whenever he thought that an alteration of the text was necessary, or when a passage appeared to him to be obscure or corrupted, he proposed his own conjectural emendation.' —

'* See the preface of Eschenbachius to the Argonautics, the Hymns, &c. of Orpheus. Edit. 1689.'

'His illustrations from antiquity, and from history, are as accurate as they are various and extensive. When, for instance, we peruse many of his notes drawn from those sources, we have often, as it were, the memoirs of the time and the politics of Syracuse; and scarcely could a modern writer feel himself more at home in the reign of Charles the Second, than Mr. Gray in the court of Dionysius. Or, if we turn to subjects of a different nature, where shall we find a nobler specimen of judicious analysis, and of manly, eloquent, interesting, and animated composition, than in his account of the Protagoras? But it would be useless, or invidious, to specify particulars where all is excellent. It is a proud consideration for Englishmen, that Mr. Gray composed all his remarks in his own native tongue, and with words of power unsphered the spirit of Plato.' (Vol. ii. pp. 294, 295.)

An appendix contains a specimen of Mr. Gray's illustrations of Linné's *Systema Naturæ*. We may say of Gray, as Johnson said of Goldsmith, that every subject on which he wrote he illustrated: — the classical scholar, the poet, the painter, the antiquary, the architect, the naturalist, the geographer, the historian, the genealogist, all might consult him with advantage; while the world at large would be edified by seeing how much the mind of man is capable of effecting, even in this short life, and with all the deductions from its leisure which its cares demand.

The postscript contains some anecdotes concerning Mr. Gray, rendered yet more valuable by the remarks which they elicit from the accomplished editor; whose reflections are all hallowed by the enthusiasm of genius, while the labours of learning give weight to their authority. If we wanted proofs of the inexhaustible fountain of enjoyment which springs up in the studious and contemplative mind, Mr. Mathias himself would serve as an example. He who can write with such eloquence and feeling must have moments of exquisite delight, which the wordling and the voluptuary will seek in vain.

> "Above the smoke and stir of this dim spot
> Which men call earth,"

he carries his treasure about with him, rejoicing in his security, and, every time that he counts his store, finding it augmented.

On Italian literature Mr. Mathias is fully intitled to dictate. His attainments in this branch the world has not now to learn: but, as a confirmation of all that we would say on this subject, we cannot forbear to recall the attention of our readers to his charming Canzone inscribed to the friend whose character he has so beautifully depicted: (vol ii. p. 329.)

'The interest which Mr. Gray felt on the subject of Italian literature, induces the editor of these volumes to add a few more observations upon it. To persons who are accurately versed in the

language, the literature, and in the poetry of modern Italy, it cannot but be surprizing, that it should be peremptorily and ignorantly degraded as the language of *conceit*, and of *false thought*; and that its votaries should be marked as admirers of tinsel and not of gold. Of what authors, and of what poets, do these objectors speak? In charity to their knowledge and to their judgment it must be supposed, that they speak not of Dante, of Petrarch, of Poliziano, of Lorenzo, of Bembo, of Ariosto, of Tasso, of Chiabrera, of Filicaja, of Redi, of Menzini, of Guidi, and of all the consecrated bards,

> "*Dextrâ lævâque* per Arni
> Convalles, *lætumque choro pæana canentes,*
> *Inter odoratum lauri nemus*"—

it cannot, cannot be. The poetical hosts of the Arno, and of the Sorga, have never wanted living leaders and living defenders, and it is sufficient for their champion to come forth with a sling and a stone against the hardiest opposer.

'But can we so forget the common vicissitudes of taste, of words, and of style in every age of every language? Is modern Italy alone, for a few extravagant and erring spirits, to be called to so severe an account? If we are extreme to mark *every* impropriety of forced thought, or of expression, where will Shakespeare, or Milton, and other poets of eminence, appear? Had the language of ancient Latium no decline, no fall? Are all the writers of Greece indiscriminately blameless and perfect? Were there no variations in their taste and judgment? If Greece had her age of Pericles, and Rome the age of her Augustus; does not modern Italy demand and fix our attention and our admiration on that of her tenth Leo? Are all her poets to be confounded with the wild genius and licentious spirit of Marino and of his school? No nation was ever more sensible of its errors under the influence of *that* poet; none was ever more ready to acknowledge them. Did not all the learned in Rome, at the close of the seventeenth century, rise as one man to correct the depravation of their language? At that period good taste returned, under the auspices of the original *Arcadia*, and of all the lesser Academies, or *Colonies* throughout Italy dependent on that parent Institution. Before the critics of the *Arcadia* (the *Pastori*, as they modestly styled themselves,) with Crescimbeni for their conductor and with the *adorato* Albano for their patron, all that was depraved in language and in sentiment, vicious metaphors, immoderate hyperboles, false thoughts, conceits, and capricious imagery, with all the barbarous and corrupted phraseology, which had so long deformed their speech, fled and disappeared. No nation was ever more ardent to vindicate itself and to wipe away such stains; no nation ever maintained, with a more becoming jealousy, the high prerogative of its ancient dignity; no nation ever rose with such an exterminating zeal to depose the usurpers of the legitimate rights of literature and of poetry, and to fix their sovereignty on the lawful basis of sound learning and of correct taste.' (Vol. ii. pp. 611, 612.)

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We are told by Dr. Burney that the Pope shook his sides with laughter, on reading the accounts by Addison and Steele of the introduction of the Italian Opera into England: but Mr. Mathias, so far from being disposed to see any wit in their jokes on this subject, is very seriously angry with Addison for his share in the business, and attributes to the popularity of his strictures the prejudice against Italian poetry which has since prevailed in this country. Neither Addison nor Steele was in fact an impartial judge on the occasion: since Steele's interest was concerned in decrying an amusement which drew the fashionable world away from the theatre in which he was a proprietor; and the arrows of Addison's wit were sharpened by resentment of the neglect which the public had shewn to his own Opera of Rosamond; though, so blind is self-love, it contains nearly as many absurdities as exist in the productions which he most ridiculed. He has likewise been suspected of taking the original idea of his own Cato from the very sources which he affects so much to despise, in an Opera intitled Cato of Uttica, represented at Venice in 1701. We will not, however, intrude any farther remarks of our own, to the exclusion of Mr. Mathias's dignified appeal from Addison's injustice, and his animated exhortation to the present age to shake off its effects:

'Yet here in England we are still, in our earlier years, almost insensibly trained to neglect or to despise the language of modern Italy, by the artful insinuations scattered throughout our most popular moral miscellany, by that polished sage, from whose hand the wound might have been least expected, by the virtuous and accomplished Addison. From disingenuous hints, from attempts to resolve the character and the merits of the language of Italy into Opera airs and silly madrigals, and from the perpetual ridicule with which the English Spectator so unworthily, and indeed so ignorantly, abounds on this subject, an effect has been produced which has hitherto been fatal to its credit and to its cultivation in Great Britain. But it must be remembered, that, at that period the star of French literature was lord of the ascendant; and that all the bolder and more invigorating influences, which had descended on Spenser and on Milton from the luminaries of Italy, were felt no longer. We are *now* once more called upon, as in the name of an august triumvirate, by Spenser, by Milton, and by Gray, to turn from the unpoetical genius of France; and, after we have paid our primal homage to the bards of Greece and of ancient Latium, we are invited to contemplate, with a studious admiration, the literary and poetical dignity of modern Italy. If the influence of *their* persuasion and of *their* example should prevail, a strong and steady light may be relumined and diffused among us; a light, which may once again conduct the powers of our rising poets, from wild whirling words, from crude, rapid, and uncorrected productions, from an overween-

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ing presumption, and from the delusive conceit of a pre-established reputation, to the labour of thought, to patient and to repeated revision of what they write, to a reverence for themselves and for an enlightened public, and to the fixed unbending principles of legitimate composition.' (Vol. ii. pp. 612, 613.)

The latter part of these remarks we would earnestly recommend to the school of poetry which is so fashionable at the present moment in this kingdom: whose professors seem disposed to value the flowers of Parnassus rather by the quickness of their growth than by the permanence of their bloom; who confound carelessness of design with ease of execution; and who, like the suitors of Penelope, deride the antiquity of the bow which they have not strength to bend.

'Nearly a hundred years have now passed,' says Mr. Mathias, 'since the birth of Gray. As a poet, and as an author, may we not consider him as holding a distinguished station among the legitimate ancients? So various and extensive was his command in every region of literature, and the application of his knowledge so just and accurate; so solid and unerring was his judgment; so rapid, yet so regulated, was the torrent of his imagination; so versatile was every faculty within him, whether to science, to poetry, to painting, or to music; and so richly and so regally was he endowed with every liberal and kindred art and accomplishment, that a scholar when he reflects can scarcely refrain from exclaiming with the philosophic bard

Ηι ΔΕΜΑΣ ΒΑΣΙΛΕΙΟΝ, εν ῳ ταδι παντα κυκλειται!

We may, however, for a moment, standing on the vantage ground and with views unbroken, contemplate what is *the power* of a mind, like Gray's, and what is *the place* which it claims and takes by sovereignty of nature. *Such a mind* respects the important distinctions of rank, of wealth, and of fortune; it understands their use, their necessity, and their specific dignities, and it neither despises nor disdains them; but calmly, and without a murmur, leaves them all to the world and to its votaries:

"*Higher than their tops*
The verdurous wall of Paradise upsprings,
And to *that mind's* bright ken gives prospect large
Over man's *nether* empire." (Vol. ii. p. 627.)

Here we must be allowed to applaud the manner in which Mr. Mathias impresses the minds of his readers with a full conviction of his own possession of those mental treasures, the value of which he so eloquently sets forth. They who can read his remarks without recognizing in them the lofty tones of Plato, and of Epictetus, would have walked on the shining sands of the Pactolus, and have thought not of the golden stream that lent them brilliancy.—Mr. Mathias proceeds in a strain of noble animation:

'There

'There are persons, indeed, whose judgment and whose experience incline them to think, that worldly elevation tends only to lessen *such* a mind; and that the retirement of *private* life is the true scene in which *such* transcendant abilities can alone appear in their proper dimensions: and this they assert, without a wish to close up the avenues to wealth, to dignity, and to high offices, or to suppress the *generally* honourable and justifiable desire of obtaining them. "THE WORLD KNOWETH ITS OWN." Such persons, when thoughts like these predominate, will call to mind what has been performed in *the depths of privacy:* they will recollect the retirement and the labours of THE MANTUAN on the shores of his beloved Parthenope; they will remember the work planned and perfected by the great FLORENTINE in his banishment; nor will THAT POET pass unnoticed, who from the recesses of Valelusa commanded the admiration of his own and of succeeding ages. Such persons will not suffer themselves to forget, that neither "heaven nor the deep tracts below" could conceal aught from the mighty mind of MILTON, when compassed round with darkness and with solitude: and they too will follow the venerable HOOKER, and will behold him in peace and in *privacy*, without disturbance, meditating and effecting the consummation of his unrivalled work, the everlasting possession and the impregnable bulwark of all that this nation holds most dear; in which, when he had first laid the deep foundations of law, of order, and of temporal polity, he assembled, as it were, within himself all the sanctities of Heaven; and with the united energies of language, of reason, and of truth, he finally vindicated and displayed triumphantly, before our Christian country, the gradations, the dignities, and the majesty of her balanced state and of her temperate hierarchy. Such persons will also call to mind, that when, in our own days, the learned and accomplished friend of the author of "The Divine Legation" had surveyed and considered maturely, with his accustomed precision, the life of Warburton and the extended literary labours of his gigantic, unwearied, and unbending mind, and had then contemplated his promotion to the prelacy, and the *pressure* of its duties, and the *time* which they required, he could not forbear to express himself in the following memorable words: "I have sometimes doubted with myself, (said the illustrious and venerable biographer of Warburton,) whether the proper scene of abilities LIKE HIS, BE NOT A PRIVATE STATION; WHERE ONLY, GREAT WRITERS HAVE LEISURE TO DO GREAT THINGS." With this dignified opinion, thus applied TO A GENIUS OF THE HIGHEST ORDER, the editor of these volumes finally consigns to the world, and to posterity, the character, the fame, and the works of THOMAS GRAY.' (Vol. ii. pp. 627—629.)

Little more remains to be said on the subject of the present splendid edition. As a poet, the warmest of Mr. Gray's admirers may safely trust him with fate; viewing him as an amiable and irreproachable private character, we may be contented to take his portrait sketched by the hand of friendship in Mr. Mason's account of him: but, for a delineation of him with

with all the mastery of talent, not only as a prodigy of learning but as that most exalted character, a Platonist made perfect by Revelation, the world is indebted to Mr. Mathias.

ART. VII. *Discipline;* a Novel. By the Author of "Self Control." Second Edition. 12mo. 3 vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

MARMONTEL has observed that, in taking measures for the production of any specific effect, one of our first considerations ought to be the disposition of the minds on which we design to act. On this principle, the allurement of a novel may win its way where graver efforts would be less successful; and, in the hour that was destined solely for amusement, the most salutary reflections and the most important convictions may arise. Such appears to have been the hope entertained by the ingenious author of 'Discipline;' a tale which is equally embellished by

"The flowers of Fiction and the gems of Truth;"

and which aims at shewing, in the words of Miss Baillie, selected for its motto, that

"All pitying Heaven,
Severe in mercy, chastening in its love,
Oft-times in dark and awful visitation
Doth interpose, and leads the wanderer back
To the straight path."

The principal character in this work is supposed to tell her own story; which commences with a highly finished family-picture, and this portrait of her mother:

'I have her figure now before me; I recollect the tender brightness of her eyes, as laying her hand upon my head she raised them silently to heaven: I love to remember the fine flush that was called into her cheek by the fervour of the half-uttered blessing. She was, in truth, a gentle being; and bore my wayward humour with an angel's patience; but she exercised a controul too gentle over a spirit which needed to be reined by a firmer hand than her's. She shrunk from bestowing even merited reproof, and never inflicted pain without suffering much more than she caused.—Yet let not these relentings of nature be called weakness,—or if the stern moralist refuse to spare, let it disarm his severity to learn that I was an only child.—I know not whether it was owing to the carelessness of nurses, or the depravity of waiting maids, or whether to say all "Nature herself wrought in me so;" but from the earliest period of my recollection, I furnished an instance at least, if not a proof, of the corruption of human kind; being proud, petulant, and rebellious.—I was of course a person of infinite importance to my mother! while

while she was present, her eye followed my every motion, and watched every turn of my countenance. — When she was obliged to consign me to my maid, it was with earnest injunctions that I should be amused; injunctions which it every day became more difficult to fulfil. Her return was always marked by fond inquiries into my proceedings during her absence; and I must do my attendants the justice to say that their replies were quite as favourable as truth would permit: they were too politic to hazard at once my favour and her's by being officiously censorious. On the contrary, they knew how to ingratiate themselves by rehearsing my witticisms with such additions and improvements as made my original property in them rather doubtful. — On my father's return from the Counting-house, my doubly rectified *bon mots* were commonly repeated to him, in accents low enough to draw my attention, as to somewhat not intended for my ear, yet so distinct as not to baulk my curiosity. This record of my wit served a triple purpose; it confirmed my opinion of my own consequence, and of the vast importance of whatever I was pleased to say or do; it strengthened the testimony which my mother's visitors bore to my miraculous pre-maturity; and it established in my mind that association so favourable to feminine character between repartee and applause!'

This account of Ellen Percy's infancy concludes with a description of her mother's death, which was occasioned by the fatigue of nursing this wayward child during an illness caused by her own obstinacy.

'I paid dearly for my triumph. The first consequence of it was a dangerous fever. My mother — but what words can do justice to the cares which saved my quivering life! what language shall paint the tenderness that watched my restless bed, and pillowed my aching temples on her bosom; that shielded from the light the burning eye, and warded from every sound the morbid ear; that persevered in these cares of love till nature failed beneath the toil, and till, with her own precious life, she had redeemed me from the grave! — My mother! first fondest love of my soul! is this barren, feeble, record the only return I can make for all thy matchless affection?'

After the melancholy event here intimated, Ellen is sent to a fashionable boarding-school, where her faults are nourished into stronger growth by unprincipled teachers and a selfish associate. At the end of 'seven years of laborious trifling,' she is placed at the head of her father's establishment, attended by her school-fellow Miss Arnold, and her mother's friend Miss Mortimer. About this period, the hero, Mr. Maitland, is introduced; and we fear that he will not excite interest, although he may command approbation:

'He was a tall, erect, man, of a figure more athletic than graceful. His features were tolerably regular and his eyes the brightest I have ever seen; but he was deprived of his pretensions to being called handsome by a certain *bony* squareness of countenance. His smile

smile was uncommonly pleasing, either from its contrast with the ordinary cast of his countenance or because it displayed the whitest teeth in the world, but he smiled so seldom as almost to forfeit these advantages.'

Pique at the apparent frigidity of this uncouth personage first excites in Ellen a desire to attract his attention; and, in the midst of innumerable follies, she retains a lurking interest in his good opinion which is sometimes well displayed in dialogue between them. She continues, however, to nourish an enmity, contracted while at school, against Lady Maria de Burgh; whose brother, Lord Frederick, becomes her suitor. Although her father rejects his proposals, and she feels totally indifferent towards him, the desire of mortifying Lady Maria, and of exciting jealousy in Mr. Maitland, leads her to pursue a line of conduct so reprehensible as materially to injure her character; while Miss Arnold, and another associate equally dangerous and designing, involve her gradually in an engagement with Lord Frederick, from which she can extract no gratification 'except the fulfilment of her desire to have revenge and precedence of Lady Maria. Such are the amiable motives that sometimes enter into what is called a love-match!'

Having consented to an elopement with Lord Frederick, Ellen reaches the place of rendezvous before him; and, when she has waited some time with her perfidious friend, a note is received from him, stating that Mr. Percy is ruined, and that *he* consequently recedes from his engagement. A train of grief and mortification now follows: Mr. Percy commits suicide; Miss Arnold refuses to receive her fallen benefactress; and, from a sick bed in a miserable lodging, Ellen is conveyed by Miss Mortimer to her cottage. Here she finds her mother's Bible, in which her own baptism is thus recorded: "This 11th of January, 1775, I dedicated my dearest child to God. May He accept and purify the offering, though it be with fire!" From this period, the sacred volume becomes her study:

'At one time (she says) the truth shone upon me, gladdening me to rapture with its brightness; at another, error darkened my sinking soul, and I was eager in my search for light. Alas! our infirmity loads with many a cloud the dawning even of that true light which shineth more and more unto the perfect day. — My original blemishes were still conspicuous enough to establish my identity, yet one momentous change had taken place, for those blemishes were no longer unobserved or wilful. — I had become more afraid of erring than of seeing my error; more anxious to escape from my faults than from my conscience.'

The story concludes with introducing Ellen to the family of her old admirer Mr. Maitland: who is now metamorphosed, through the medium of some very prolix descriptions, into a

lively

lively and intrepid Highland chieftain; and this unnatural transmutation involves the author in explanations which are aukward in their progress, and unsatisfactory in proportion to their needless improbability. We must also remark that Mr. Maitland's letters are not in unison with his character, since they contain little else than elaborate descriptions of Ellen's personal attractions; whereas, if they had been made to convey reflections on the influence of women in domestic life, and had displayed a manly conflict in his own mind between sensibility and resolution, they might have ennobled and endeared a character which is now too slightly developed. On the other hand, the ingratitude of Ellen to Miss Mortimer is much too strongly drawn; it excites disgust towards her, and exceeds any hardness of heart which we can suppose to be possible for a young person of her disposition to display. Another improbable circumstance is the total abandonment of Ellen by every acquaintance at the time of her father's death: — so unjust an exaggeration of manners evinces a want of contrivance, and a deficiency in consideration. Moreover, as novels are supposed to describe the present customs of society to future ages, foreign lands, and country misses, it may be well to observe that the tale before us is not sufficiently explicit on the rules respecting *chaperons;* since Miss Percy and Miss Arnold appear at the first Ball, and the subsequent masquerade, without any protecting lady.

In the third volume, many of the peculiarities of Scotland are related with much vivacity: the story of Cecil Graham is original and pathetic; and the scene at her wedding is highly national and picturesque. This volume also contains a description of that dreadful abode of human misery and degradation, a mad-house; and the melancholy varieties of the place, but, above all, the characteristics of the keeper, are delineated with a masterly appearance of reality which makes the illusion painfully complete. — In the pathetic minutiæ of the mother's death-bed, and in the vivid horrors which attend that of the father, the fair author succeeds in establishing what Lord Kaimes has termed *ideal presence;* and she proves her powers to be so superior, that we may have been induced to scrutinize almost unreasonably the few defects of her work. It may be easy to detect the errors of such a writer:

"For what to shun will no great knowledge need:"

but where is the cold criticism that could have prompted either the pious and noble sentiments with which her composition abounds, or the exalted language which the real feeling of the heart alone inspires?

Art.

ART. VIII. *Dermid*, or Erin in the Days of Boru. A Poem. By John D'Alton, Esq. Barrister at Law. 4to. 2l. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

THE author of this Irish epic in quarto has kindly saved his reviewers much trouble, by anticipating their sentence of disapprobation on certain portions of his work. He tells us, in a most singular dedication, (the prevalent qualities, however, of which composition are candour and good humour,) that

'The period of the following romance is that interesting epoch in the history of Ireland, when Danish oppression was driven from that country, by the check which it received at the memorable battle of Clontarf. The manners and customs of that age are, I trust, preserved; while many events connected with its history, are glanced at in the progress of the work, and the plot has been designed to present as much variety of scenery as possible. The Lakes of Killarney, the Isle of Man, the county Wicklow, &c. are successively the theatres of the action. The Danes not being entirely converted to Christianity at that period, afforded me an opportunity of introducing the superstitions and rites of Odin, and the other deities of the Northern Mythology. The battle of Clontarf, in which the catastrophe is wound up, was fought in 1014, in April it is supposed, I have referred it to the 25th of March, as I was thus enabled the better to mark the time of the cantos by festivals.

'I am conscious there must be many faults in the work, which I have not judgment to discover. Of many I am myself aware. There are too frequent interruptions of the main story. The introduction of two ballads is injudicious in a work of such native length. In the first canto, Ellen is perhaps left too long to her own reflections. The second and third cantos appear at first too unconnected. Dermid's route in the sixth canto is too circuitous, the reason is obvious, and will I hope palliate the error. The events of the seventh canto succeed each other too rapidly, and as to the eighth—but here I had better pause. I shall not anticipate the Reviewers. To censure will in this case but evince the judgment of these gentlemen of the black-rod; while I have only to regret, that I did not publish this poem a few months sooner, and I might have pleaded infancy to all their attacks. One fault however I must premise,—too great a strain of melancholy runs through the poem. I have endeavoured, I hope successfully, to divert the reader from sympathizing in its gloom, by assuming a more lively style in the notes.'

That reader must be of a most saturnine disposition, and "stubbornly resist all tendency to laughter," who does not welcome this native effusion with an unreproving smile. We are much deceived if Mr. and Miss Edgeworth, with all the joint ingenuity that dictated the Essay on Irish Bulls, could reduce every member of the foregoing sentences into perfect harmony; and shew that lurking discrimination in apparent confusion, which often characterizes the miscalled blunders of

their countrymen. For instance, after an author has indicated striking and real faults in six cantos out of twelve in his own poem; besides several other capital and pervading errors in the management of his story; for him to 'pause,' as he terms it, and then add, '*he shall not anticipate the Reviewers*,' does seem a little whimsical. On this point, however, we shall only dwell for a moment; and, sincerely thanking the author for endeavouring to prevent the too gloomy effect on our spirits which he thinks his poem is likely to produce, by the lively contrast in his notes, (a most original specimen of benevolence,) we shall turn to another passage in his dedication, which has pleased us greatly. Indeed, for feeling if not for elegance of expression, it may bear a comparison with the celebrated

"*Parve, nec invideo, sine me, liber, ibis in urbem,*"

of Ovid, or any similar farewell of an author to his work, with which we are acquainted.

Mr. D'Alton, who seems to be only just of age, and of whom we may therefore form sanguine expectations, tells us that 'the more serious pursuits of life have early called him away, and now more than ever hurry him from a study, which was the amusement of his less anxious years.

'Yet, Dermid!' (he proceeds) 'thou hast been too long my companion, that our parting should not affect me. Thou hast cheered me when depressed! Thou hast chastened me when elated! Thou hast been with me by my Winter's fire-side! Thou hast accompanied me in my Summer-rambles! But now wilt thou leave me; and, when I thus bid thee the last farewell, when I think thou art rushing into a world that will not shew thy faults that charity, I had almost said that partiality which I have felt, I cannot but follow thee with the tear it were stoicism to refuse! — Farewell!'

From the account which we have thus extracted, our readers will be enabled to form a sufficiently correct idea of the subject and management of Dermid, and we need only add on this head that the tale is somewhat intricate in its contrivance, and not very clear in its developement; while the catastrophe is hurried in the most exceptionable manner. The defects, in short, are defects arising from a want of patient correction, and judicious curtailment throughout: while the excellences (for we can use no other appropriate term) are those of strong natural genius, assisted by very considerable cultivation; a truly acute and just perception of what is high, pathetic, and beautiful in morals; a keen admiration of the glowing forms of external nature; an ardent love of country; and, frequently, a powerful and simple mode of clothing all these good qualities in poetical language. We shall endeavour to prove how far

this panegyric is deserved, by exhibiting some detached passages which we think are worthy of approbation; and, not entering any farther into the general topics of censure on which we have already touched, we shall be satisfied with a few occasional strictures on defective passages.

Among the beauties of the work, those perhaps are the most prominent which relate to the common subjects of poetical feeling and description; to things often thought, and often well expressed, but which are still susceptible of a new grace from some peculiarity of style in their last proprietor. Such hackneyed themes as even the following are well managed by the present author:

'Some spirit of the hill shall spread
The sweetest flowers, round true love's pillow;
And pity's tear shall dew their bed,
And wood-nymphs wreath their funeral willow.
Such bliss might stay the soul's last flight,
The partial pride would be forgiven;
Transporting moment of delight,
Though stolen from the joys of heaven!'

Again,

'Memory, sweet solace of the blest,
Has little charm for misery;
She comes, an uninvited guest,
To wring the last—last gem from sorrow's faded eye.'

Or,

'"Whither have fled the happy days,
When love—when friendship warmed my soul?
Dear years of early happiness!
To what Elysium do you roll?
Are you beyond the world of death?
Oh! tell me, thou! some guardian power!
I'll prize the retrogressive path,
That leads me to their joys once more.

'"Oh! bring me to those genial climes,
Where bursts from earth the setting day!
There is the reign of happier times,
The world of years long past away.
There early friends, whose memory dear
Lives only now in sorrow's heart,
Though long—too long divided here,
Shall meet—and never more to part!"'

Again,

'Why does the drooping rose delight?
Its bloom is gone!—its scent is o'er!
Yet, fading in the blast of night,
It wins the eye of pity more.

The tottering pile, — the ruined hall, —
The aged arch, — the ivied wall —
Steal on the soul a cherished care,
And leave a softened sorrow there.

'The lone survivor of the storm
More dearly wins the pensive soul,
With branches seared, and leafless form;
Than when Spring's gentlest sighs would roll
Delighted, through its foliage green,
Embalming every bud between.
The heart of grief forgets its care,
When soothed by kindred ruin there.'

Marius among the ruins of Carthage probably occurred to the author at the conclusion of this passage: but, however this may be, at the beginning of it he certainly makes an assertion which, as it is not true to nature, should find no place in poetry. Unless, indeed, he be very unfortunate in his roses, he certainly cannot have found their bloom and their scent depart together.

The ensuing lines allude to a subject interesting to every patriot:

'"Oh! Erin! in thine hour of need,
Thy warriors wander o'er the earth;
For others' liberties they bleed,
Nor guard the land that gave them birth:
In foreign fields, it is their doom,
To seek — their fame, — to find — their tomb.

'"For them no friend of early days
A tear of kindred grief shall shed;
Nor maiden's prayer, nor minstrel's lays
Shall hallow their neglected bed.
They sleep beneath the silent stone,
To country lost — to fame scarce known."'

This invocation has a rather aukward conclusion: but it brings us to that species of the 'moral descriptive' in which, perhaps, Dermid's chief merit will be found to consist.

The openings of the cantos are almost all devoted to the cause of freedom; and some of them are, in our opinion, highly animated. For example:

'"Awake! sons of Erin! — The night is past over;
The morning of liberty bursts on our plains;
Alas! for the day, when our sons shall discover,
They sprung from a race, that could sleep in their chains!

'"Awake! sons of Erin! — We fear not the stranger,
We will go to the field, to be partners in danger;
Victory shall follow us, — No fortune can change her,
When united we fight for our Erin go Bragh!"'

Another

Another and a still better specimen of the same spirit is to be found at the beginning of the eleventh canto:

'The sun in golden splendour walked the sky;
When through the tents the hostile warriors woke,
And, as the long wished hour of fight drew nigh,
As o'er Cluntarffe the gathering sun-beams broke,
Freedom in proud defiance from the yoke
Seemed struggling to assert her ancient sway;
Nature sent forth her charms; — creation spoke;
And, ever as the bugle wound that day,
'Twas hailed by echoing hills, and many a courser's neigh.'

In this last stanza, especially, we think that much good taste is displayed; and we are always disposed to feel a proportionate regret for the failures of an author who is capable of expressing himself in so clear and just a manner. To these failures we shall now briefly advert.

Although, throughout this ample poem, the composition of so young an author, we discover less violation of the rules of grammatical propriety than in many of the comparatively short productions of popular poets of the day, yet we meet with some obnoxious irregularities of this description. We have, indeed, too many instances of the omission of the article and the pronoun, of the substitution of the singular for the plural in nouns; and of sentences beginning with verbs not in the imperative mood. Mr. Scott, in a word, and Lord Byron, are largely answerable to their contemporaries, and we fear (from the lasting contagion of bad example in distinguished writers) to posterity also, for an inundation of barbarisms of a similar nature, with which they have overspread the land:

"*Vix Priamus tanti, totaque Troja, fuit.*"

We beg our Irish bard to abstain from such *idlenesses* for the future; should he indeed ever again exchange the green bag of the barrister for the pink port-folio of the poet: — a matter which, we humbly think, in all such cases should be left to the individual's own unbiassed determination. Meanwhile, let us be excused from such lines as

'He found alas! *unhallowed bed.*'

'The warrior knows *not hour of rest.*'

'War is her creed—*even Christian cell*
Tenants an unfrequented dell,' &c. &c.

It is unnecessary to specify any more passages of this kind, which are, as we have observed, but too numerous. A still more frequent fault occurs in the incorrectness of the rhymes. We have *death* and *path*; *Recairn* and *Erin*; *gaze* and *gloominess*; *glens* and *Danes*; *life* and *grief*; *grey* and *unsociably*; *toils*

and *isles*; *appeared* and *guard*; *vale* and *steal*; *theme* and *name*; *fought* and *spot*; *power* and *shore*; *advance* and *clans*; *away* and *memory*; *gone* and *Maoldun*; and many others, which it would really be tedious to transcribe. We hasten therefore to a passage, in which the author describes the death of the old King Borū with much animation. The monarch is placed on a hill within sight of the battle, though not allowed to join in it, on account of his age: but a Danish dart reaches him, and he is mortally wounded:

'Revealed before his eyes arose,
In that prophetic hour, the woes,
The years of woes his native land
Should suffer from invader's brand.
But, see! a fitful smile,—a beam
Across the brow of sorrow plays;
Some sacred vision cheers the dream,
And gilds the gloom of future days!
Half smiles Borū,—his cheek is pale;
A moment, leaning on his lance,
He looks along the distant vale,
A parting view, a dying glance.
The sun on the horizon stood,
Splendid he set on fields of blood;
As if his beams were sent to hail
Freedom's return to Inisfail.
The aged hero fixed his sight,
With awe, on the receding light;
That seemed like him to wane away,
Lost to the glow of early day.
"Farewell!" he cried, as faint and dim
The parting radiance glanced on him;
"Farewell! lost beam!—But one short hour,
And I shall follow on *thy path*;
And hail thee from an happier bower,
Bursting on worlds that know not *death!*"—
A fragment of the orb remained;—
"'Twill light my way!"—He clenched his hand
Close to the wound;—the parting beam
Lit in his eye a fading flame;
That flame is fled,—that beam retired!—
The sun has set,—Borū expired!'—

This quotation would alone, we think, be sufficient to establish the author's claim to considerable distinction: but many others of great merit occur in the volume. It betrays, perhaps, too frequent and too obvious an imitation of Walter Scott, yet it also manifests much originality. The catalogue of the Irish forces, which is a sort of rival Gathering to that which is given in "the Lady of the Lake," although extremely inferior, is spun

spun out to an unconscionable length; and in some of the barbarous names, and the abruptness of their introduction, it reminds us not a little of George Colman's most humorous tale of Castle Blazeygig. We must not, however, dismiss 'Dermid' with any ludicrous allusions. Though the blemishes which we have plainly exposed will ever prevent this poem from obtaining a place as one of the higher compositions of the British Muse, it will maintain a respectable rank among the hasty effusions of our own times; and it will have the praise of high and pure morality throughout, as well as of an ardent patriotism, to raise it far above many productions with which in minor points it may be unequal to contend.

ART. IX. *Observations on the Marriage Laws*, particularly in Reference to the Case of Desertion, or a fraudulent and violated Contract; in which the Right of the injured Party is supported by religious, moral, and historical Evidence, demonstrating the Necessity of legislative Interference. 8vo. pp. 408. 12s. Boards. Hatchard. 1815.

THE abuse of the law of divorce, on its late introduction among our neighbours, makes the present moment inauspicious to the project of the author of this volume; which is nothing less than to render marriage, in the case of desertion, or of a fraudulent and violated contract, dissoluble at the suit of the injured party. The writer enters much at large into the discussion of this very important subject, but in a loose and desultory manner: indeed, he has by no means precise and distinct ideas on the plan which he would wish to be adopted, and seems disposed to go farther than he deems it prudent to avow. From the whole of what he says, however, we may presume that he would be contented with the projected law of the committee of Edward VI., which allowed divorce in cases of adultery or desertion, of any capital enmity or plot against the other's life, and of fierce or cruel usage. He seems also to coincide with the idea of Dr. Adam Clarke, that divorce should be permitted in all cases in which it is sought by the mutual consent of the parties.

It very much imports the object which the author has in view, to determine on the nature of marriage. If he be able to make out that this is a mere civil contract, his task is rendered comparatively easy; whereas, if it be a religious rite, he will have to meet objections without end. Being aware of this circumstance, he commences his work by a full consideration of this point; and he endeavours to shew that marriage has no more connection with religion than any other

solemn contract. For this purpose, he traces it up to the first couple, takes a view of it among the patriarchs, surveys it under the Mosaic dispensation, and follows it to a late period in the history of the Christian church; and, during all this time, he finds it to be wholly unconnected with religion. It must be observed that, at a very early æra, it became the fashion among Christians to depreciate marriage; proportionably extolling celibacy, and representing virginity as connected with the special regard of Heaven. With such rigour did these principles come at length to be enforced, that, in the ninth century, 'the clergy are not allowed to have any woman live with them; no, neither sister nor mother. It was the boast of one of the Jesuits that he had not beheld the face of a woman for more than forty years, and another was so pious that he would not see his own mother.' In the course of the following century, it was ordained that

'No marriage is to be solemnized privately, nor after meals; but the bride and bridegroom are to be blessed by a priest fasting. Hitherto no marriage was to be celebrated in Holy Lent, nor on a fast day, nor on any holy-day; but as the church grew more wise and more holy, no marriage was now to take place "from Septuagesima Sunday till after the octave of Whitsuntide, and from the first Sunday in Advent till after the octave of the Epiphany, nor on any of the days before appointed."'

Of the twelfth century, the author observes,

'That this was the time when the power of marriage was getting into the hands of the clergy, and was to be brought under ecclesiastical jurisdiction. "Hitherto there was no solemnization of marriage in a church; but the man came to the house where the woman inhabited, and led her home to his own house, which was all the ceremony then used." The priest had by degrees obtruded himself as a witness to the transaction, and to give his benediction, till at length it was deemed essential; and now any marriage was to be considered as unlawful where the sacerdotal benediction was withheld.

'Peter Lombard found out that there were *seven sacraments*, from the mystical expression in the Revelation about "the seven spirits of God," and that marriage was one of them! The administration of it by the hands of a priest followed of course, the belief of its absolute nullity without this was gradually received by the people till it grew into an article of faith, and superstition has continued it amongst us to the present day.'—

'Early in the thirteenth century, marriage is openly brought into the church, treated as a sacrament to be performed at the altar, and completely put into the hands of the priest. Heretofore it was so carnal that no priest ought to have any thing to do with it: now it is so holy that none but a priest can manage it.'

In the writer's interesting account of the treatment of this question at and since the Reformation, he mentions that Martin Bucer, in a tract intitled *Christ's Kingdom*, (composed at the request of Edward VI.) insists on the injured party's right in case of desertion to be divorced, and to have liberty to marry again; and he states that the same Prince appointed a committee of thirty-two eminent persons, among whom were Cranmer and Peter Martyr, to frame a new system of laws respecting marriage. — He also notices, in much detail, the circumstances by which Milton was connected with this question; and he asserts that, this great man would have reduced to practice the principles which he had laid down, and so ably defended, had not his wife retracted, and by her address obtained his forgiveness.

In his chapter on the inconsistency of the English law on the subject, the author urges several unanswerable objections to the law as it now stands. The purpose and design of the marriage-act are thus stated: viz.

'To render all marriages "null and void to all intents and purposes whatsoever," if contracted without the observance of all the particulars required by former statutes, and the canons of the church; so that persons who were actually married in the sight of God, and with the entire approbation of their own consciences, are at once set free and discharged from all obligation to each other even after long cohabitation, if it can be proved that certain informalities attended the original contract. The dreadful consequences resulting from this law are often seen to the present day.' —

'Since this act passed, every moral obligation is destroyed, where the legal forms have not been strictly complied with; and such marriages being deemed "clandestine," are declared to be "null and void to all intents and purposes whatsoever," though perfectly consistent with every principle of equity, and the clearest dictates of reason and revelation.'

With equal severity, he animadverts on the statute by which minors, who marry without the consent of parents or guardians, 'are at liberty to dissolve the contract when they come of age, even where no criminal charge of any kind can be preferred.' — He puts the following among several other cases, in order to shew how imperiously the law requires alteration in these respects:

'Let us,' he says, 'suppose a man to be indicted on the statute of bigamy, and the case will stand nearly as follows. — He is arraigned, and pleads not guilty. If it comes out in the course of the trial, that having been forsaken by a cruel wife, he had taken another, he is safe; but if it should be proved that he had *formally* married her, he is sentenced to transportation, or two years' imprisonment. Or if it should be clearly proved that he had only taken the wife of another man, but had not formally married her, he must be acquitted. In this

this case a breach of the seventh commandment would have saved him; but in the other, an honourable marriage, clearly authorised by the Scriptures, would have been his ruin.*

On the collected cases, he remarks;

'It is impossible for a serious mind to reflect on these things, without lamenting the evils which the present system has introduced. Heavy burdens and grievous to be borne, are laid with an unfeeling hand on the injured and oppressed, while the greatest latitude is given to the licentious to violate every moral principle with impunity. The marriage union it seems can easily be dissolved, if the wantonness or caprice of a minor should so require; but if the greatest injury be sustained, which in effect dissolves the contract, or the party be defrauded by an obstinate desertion, then the union becomes indissoluble! If the frivolous plea of consanguinity be set up, the marriage is declared to be null and void; but if the union has been productive of nothing but misery and ruin to the parties, then again it is indissoluble, and no power on earth has either mercy or justice to dispense. If a man presume to violate the rights of his neighbour, in transgressing the law of heaven, he shall be free; but if he seek the restoration of those rights with which God and nature have invested him, he must be convicted of guilt, and treated like a felon! This is indeed to strain at a gnat, and swallow a camel. Things could never have come to such a pass in a Protestant and enlightened nation, had it not been for the fatal remains of that monkish system which has entailed upon posterity the grossest prejudices that ever degraded the human mind.'

In the subsequent passage, we have the plan on which the author is willing to commit himself, but by no means that for which he in fact argues in these pages: it is of far less extent than the latter. He tells us that

'It is not his design to enquire for what cause a man may "put away" his wife: his object is to know the will of God in case of obstinate *desertion*, where a person is absolutely forsaken, and virtually put away by a faithless husband or wife, without any rational hope of future peace or union. And though it is not intended to investigate the causes which might lead to such an issue, whether they were natural or moral, religious or domestic; yet it is to be understood that the deserted party has acted faithfully and uprightly, both in entering into the connection and during the time of cohabitation, so as to give no reasonable occasion for the separation, and that in the whole transaction he possesses a conscience void of offence. The reader will not do justice to the enquiry, unless he take into consideration the whole of this statement, and the writer would feel himself injured by any other.'

We would here suggest a question. If a person be induced by improper motives to contract a marriage, and owing to its vicious origin he finds that marriage distressing, does the author contend that such a person ought to have a right to break the ties? He is supposed to have conducted himself

himself correctly during wedlock, but to have entered into it corruptly. The cause of the unhappiness was known to him at the time of his forming the union; and it was obvious what its effect would be. Shall he, then, be allowed to sue out a divorce, and to dissolve a marriage which he ought never to have contracted? — If, for instance, a man marries a woman of whose ill temper he has abundant proofs, for the sake of her wealth or her beauty, and finds that her unruly passions cannot be borne, shall he be allowed to put her away? Whether the marriage was or was not contracted from proper considerations is, we think, a circumstance that deserves to be weighed in agitating the present question. Even in the case of adultery, if a man knew that the woman whom he was going to marry was addicted to that crime, he would with no good grace urge the commission of it subsequently to the marriage as a cause for putting her away.

From the law of England, which is directly against him, the writer appeals to the Scriptures; where he finds a text which, according to him, bears closely on the point in question, and which he regards as decisive: viz. 1 Cor. vii. 15. "If the unbelieving depart, let him depart, a brother or a sister is not under bondage in such cases." It cannot be doubted that the expression of the brother or sister not being under bondage means that the one or the other shall be at liberty to marry again: but that the permission here granted is universal, and not restricted to an unbelieving partner, does not appear to us so clearly proved. That the author, however, does not want confidence as to the soundness of his opinion may be concluded from what he says when dismissing this topic:— 'Judging therefore according to the Scriptures, apart from human institutions, the right contended for is fully established, and cannot be denied by any serious or unprejudiced mind. Sanctioned as it also is by the reason of things, and every principle of equity, it ought to form a part of the laws of every enlightened nation.'

Of acting on this doctrine, an instance is given in the case of Galiacius Carracciolus, an Italian nobleman, who withdrew from Naples to Geneva on account of religion. His wife, after repeated applications on his part, having positively refused to accompany him, he resolved to marry again, and consulted Calvin on the subject; who referred him to Peter Martyr and the principal ministers of Switzerland, and they assembled to take the question into consideration. After it had been debated and argued on both sides,

'It was concluded and agreed on by them all with one consent, *That he might with safe conscience depart from that wife who had first*

of

of all on her own part, broken the bond, and dissolved the marriage knot: and for the proof of this opinion, many cases and reasons were alleged from the Scriptures, Fathers, Councils, and Civil Law, which was the law of almost all countries in Christendom. All which, with their reasons and conclusions, were put in writing, and are safely recorded and kept to this day, ready to be showed to any one as need shall require.'

We have in the following lines another proof of the confidence which the author places in the opinion for which he here contends. 'If,' says he, 'Leander were forsaken by a faithless wife, and Leonora abandoned by a cruel husband, and both were left in hopeless misery, no law would be violated by their union; because there would be no invasion of right, no breach of a divine command, and no ill to our neighbour. In that case they would only do what the law of God and nature required them to do, or what reason and revelation approved.' It is very true, as he observes, that

'Some instances have also occurred, in which the laws of our own country have been relaxed in favour of marriage union; and it is highly probable this would still have been the case, had it not been for the passing of the Marriage Act, which annuls every contract, however just and right in itself, if not accompanied with the requisite formalities.

'It is said that a gentleman and lady were on a voyage from India; that an attachment was formed soon after they went on board, and that they wished to be married. But there being neither altar nor priest at hand, they requested the ship's company to bear witness of their vows and promises. They did so; and before they arrived in England, the husband died intestate, and the lady was afterwards delivered of a son. A court of justice recognised the marriage, and declared the son to be the heir of his father's property. How much wiser and better was this, than to stigmatise both the living and the dead, to illegitimatise the son, and deprive him of his inheritance, as the law against clandestine marriages would afterwards have required. Here the principle of natural right was properly allowed to be paramount to legal forms, and the moral obligation of the parties considered as having fully established the nuptial contract.'

This is a case, however, of not complying with the requisites of the law through absolute impossibility so to do; whereas to act on the doctrine in question is to act against a positive law, in the hope that, on account of its absurdity, it will not be enforced. If the legislature were of this way of thinking, it would unquestionably alter the law.

Treating of the dissolubility of marriage under the Mosaic law, the author says;

'If the marriage union has been dissolved for so many reasons specified in the Scriptures, and any of these are found to be of a *moral* nature, it would be highly absurd to pretend that a dissolution in such cases could

could at any time be inconsistent with moral principle, or the original institution of marriage. So far also as those reasons are *economical*, relating to the peace and comfort of domestic life, they must of course apply to cases where the circumstances are similar, and ought to be adopted by every state professing Divine Revelation as the guide of its general policy.'

The reasoning of Martin Bucer on the same subject is very forcible:

'"What the Lord permitted to his first-born people, that he certainly would not forbid to his people among the Gentiles, who are coheirs with them; nor could he ever permit or command what was not good for them, if used as he commanded; nor can any one seriously imagine that God would make that to be sinful to those who believe and serve him under the Gospel, which he granted and commanded to them who served him under the law. The same grievances must require the same relief; and no one can deny that many marriages are as full of misery now as they could be among the Jews. The Lord therefore, who always loves to succour the oppressed, would ever have it provided for injured husbands and wives, that under pretence of the marriage bond they be not enslaved to perpetual vexations, instead of the loving and comfortable duties of the marriage life."'

As to the prohibitions of divorce in the New Testament, the author meets them with somewhat of dismay, comments on them feebly, and makes his way through them rather lamely: but, even in this part of the work, he presents us with lively declamation, together with pertinent and weighty observations, as his comments on the following passage attest:

'*And I say unto you whosoever shall put away his wife, except for fornication, and shall marry another, committeth adultery.* Whosoever shall put away his wife as the proposers of this question intended, as Herod did, violently, without mutual consent for urgent reasons; or for any sudden cause or disagreement, "except it be for fornication;" whosoever shall put away rashly and in anger, without deliberation or a due regard to peace and love, and think his conscience discharged by only giving a bill of divorcement; whosoever shall put away "his wife," one who is so in truth and not in name only, who is both able and willing to be a "help meet" in the principal ends of marriage, both civil and sacred, that man "committeth adultery." Not he who dissolves the union by mutual consent, with humanity and gentleness, and not from lust or malice. Not he who after long experience finds he cannot love with that sincere affection which such a union requires, yet with so much civility and goodness as not to wish to keep his companion under a neglected and unwelcome residence, where nothing can be hearty or sincere, and where it is felt to be undesirable to be so detained, and more injurious than to be freely and on good terms dismissed. Nor does he put away unlawfully who complains of causes rooted in immutable nature, utter unfitness and disagreement, not to be conciliated, because not to be mended without a miracle. Nor

Nor he who puts away an unquenchable vexation from his bosom, and flees an evil, the greatest that can befal humanity. Nor he who puts away an intolerable adversary, a deserter, or an unfeeling and sullen mass, whose very presence is the visible representation of loneliness itself. Nor he who puts away with the full suffrage and applause of a good conscience, claiming by faith and full persuasion the rights and promises of God's institution, of which he finds himself utterly defrauded in a mistaken wedlock. Such a one has bail enough to be no adulterer.'

Such texts appear strong against the doctrine here maintained, but, we conceive, are by no means decisive on it. It is on civil, and not on theological grounds, that the main difficulties relating to this question occur. In every discussion of it, the case of children ought to form a leading consideration; yet it is very remarkable that, in the whole of his volume, the present author never once touches on a topic so closely connected with his subject.

It may farther be here observed that very few, if any, of the cases requiring divorce are those of marriages contracted from proper views, but arise mostly, if not wholly, from such as were formed from unworthy motives; which is a view of the point, as we have before observed, that is never taken by the author. Although, in many respects, he discusses his question at great length, its merits cannot be said to be fully debated; and therefore he cannot expect a verdict to be pronounced on his undertaking.

If, however, we do not allow to this work the praise of exhausting the vast and momentous subject of which it treats, still it is intitled to commendation for what has been done; and we cannot too much applaud the spirit in which it has been penned. It is in the highest degree grave, dispassionate, and candid; and in the composition, from the beginning to the end, a single expression does not escape the author that will hurt the feelings of the most delicate bosom, or offend the ears of the most scrupulous. No head of a family needs be afraid of reading it to his domestic circle.

ART. X. *Lives of Edward and John Philips*, Nephews and Pupils of Milton. Including various Particulars of the literary and political History of their Times. By William Godwin. To which are added, 1. Collections for the Life of Milton by John Aubrey, F.R.S. Printed from the MS. Copy in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford. 2. The Life of Milton. By Edward Philips. Printed in the Year 1694. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

AFFINITY to the great seems to be attended with considerable advantages under every state of society; and, though its basis is founded in nature, it owes much of its influence to the associations

associations of men. How far it ought to be modified is a fit theme for political discussion: but the ingenious author of the volume before us was destined both to extend the principle farther than it had hitherto been carried, and, in virtue of it, to assert distinctions to which it had not previously been deemed intitled.

Mr. Godwin has discovered, and he sets no small store on the discovery, that Edward and John Philips, the two nephews of Milton and his pupils, and the former his biographer, ranked among the literati of their day; he has even procured lists of their works, and possessed himself of most of them. These persons, notwithstanding their high alliances, are of a rank which would scarcely procure for them a slight notice in a biographical dictionary: but they were the near relatives of Milton, were educated by him, and illustrate his history; and therefore it is, we presume, that the present costly monument is set up to commemorate them. Were the writer before us a man of more humble pretensions than Mr. G., we might suspect him of ingenuity in the art of book-making, and impute to him a scheme of palming old materials on the public, under the guise of a new work: but we are far from ascribing such motives to Mr. Godwin, and widely does he steer from the latter part of the charge. It is true that we do not consider ourselves as much beholden to him for the information which he imparts respecting the immediate subjects of this volume; yet we apprehend that no reader will peruse it without making acknowlegements for the interest and instruction which he will have derived from the collateral matter so abundantly scattered through it. The character and writings of Milton, with the events of the twofold period, — that of the troubles, and that of the Restoration, — are beaten topics: but we do not apprehend that many persons will regret their having again trodden over this ground in company with Mr. Godwin. All his observations proceed from a manly free spirit: he does not withhold due praise from republican merit, nor refuse to render justice to characters that have long remained in the shade; nor does he hesitate to expose infamy to open day, however justified by specious pretences or glossed over with goodly names. Indeed, the sentiments which he professes are highly creditable to the subject of a free state; while the air of originality which he imparts to tales so often repeated gives us a high idea of his abilities. The matter of this volume, presented to us in any other form, would, with the exception of that part which relates to the Philipses, have been very acceptable: but others, who can discover a worthiness in these subjects, and who do not object to blend miscellaneous matter with history, may be less fastidious than

than we are, and may hail the present here made to them in the very form in which it is communicated.

We will concede to Mr. Godwin, that it is bad taste to make any undertaking of Milton a subject of pleasantry: but we are nevertheless of opinion that the objections, urged in that shape against the poet's system of education by our great biographer, have not been and cannot be refuted. When enumerating the books which were put into the hands of Milton's pupils, it is to no purpose that Mr. Godwin observes: 'It could not be by accident that we do not find the names of Homer, Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Pindar, Anacreon, Herodotus, Thucydides and Plato, among the Greeks, or among the Romans, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, Terence, Catullus, Juvenal, Martial, Cicero, Livy, Sallust and Tacitus, in this list. Milton, it is to be supposed, thought that these were authors to be read in the solitude of the closet, by one who had already mastered the languages in which they wrote, and that it would be profanation to employ the composition of such men, as exercises upon which to acquire the rudiments of etymology, prosody and syntax.' In what is here advanced by Mr. G. himself, and what he conjectures to have been supposed by Milton, we presume to think that we see more that is plausible than that is solid. Abstractedly considered, it may not be shewing due respect to the master-pieces of antiquity to introduce them into our schools, and to beat them into the heads of boys: but, if these precious remains are saved this insult, and their perusal is postponed 'to the solitude of the closet,' when the student shall have 'mastered the languages in which they are written,' is no danger incurred that such a day may never arrive? How are we to become familiar with the phraseology in which they are written, unless we pore over their pages while we are young? By what other mode may we imbibe their spirit, and the noble sentiments which they contain be infused into us? — It happens, we admit, in too many instances, that we contract an antipathy to that which costs us much trouble to acquire. This is a misfortune, but we may guard against it. Can it redound much to the credit of the two youths, or impress us with very favourable notions of the seminary in which they were bred and the tuition which they underwent, that they were no sooner out of their illustrious preceptor's hands, than they openly abjured his principles, connected themselves with the cavaliers, and laboured with all their might to effect the return of the reversed order of things? 'In 1655 John the younger,' we are told, 'published a poem, intitled, a *Satyr against Hypocrites*,' which is here denominated 'an undisguised attack

attack against every thing that was then visible in this country under the name of religion, and in which the author misses no opportunity of insinuating into the mind, as he goes on, impure and lascivious ideas;' thus giving unequivocal proofs of his utter alienation from his uncle, and of the intimate habits which he had formed with the opposite party. The whole poem is characterized as being 'in one continued strain of buffoonery.'

In the year 1658, 'a book was published by Edward Philips, in which he sufficiently proved himself a proficient in the same school with his brother.' It was a medley, consisting of prose and verse, of original poetry and borrowed pieces, which Mr. G. thus characterizes:

'This book is put together with conspicuous ingenuity and profligacy, and is entitled to no insignificant rank among the multifarious productions, which were at that time issued from the press, to debauch the manners of the nation, and bring back the king; and if we could overlook the gross provocations to libertinism and vice which every where occur in it, it might be mentioned as no unentertaining illustration of the manners of the men of wit and gallantry of the time when it was published.'—'Every part of the book is interspersed with veins of vulgarity and obscenity, and the author never misses an opportunity of saying severe things against Puritans and hypocrites.'—'There were a set of men at this time who were assiduously employed in decrying the order of things which then prevailed, and indirectly preparing the way for the restoration of all that the patriots of 1640 had abolished.'

It is a singular sight to behold the near relatives and pupils of Milton closely allied to these persons, and cordially co-operating with them; so that, neither on the score of talents nor on that of respectability, can we perceive aught in these two men to intitle them to the elaborate monument here erected to their memory.

With languid steps, we follow the author through his details concerning the Philipses, while from his collateral excursions we rarely return without being refreshed. Milton, set loose from the confinement of his seminary, intended to devote his leisure to the pursuit of high poetic hopes, but suffered himself to be diverted from this peaceful course by conscience, which engaged him in the fruitless controversies respecting ecclesiastical discipline. On this class of his labours, Mr. Godwin's remarks are as candid as they are just:

'These writings,' he says, 'do not seem at first to have added much to his reputation. His learning, in points of ecclesiastical history, was inferior to that of Usher, and perhaps of other controversialists who were engaged on the side of the Church of England. His style was harsh, perplexed, and obscure. Every where traces of a writer imbued with a magnificent poetical character burst forth, and there are many passages of a surprising and lofty eloquence; but

these are suffocated in the general quaintness of the composition, and the sombre and monotonous tone which prevails throughout. Men of a genuine taste, in the present day, read these productions with ardour, eager to trace the mind and character of Milton through every step of their progress. But such motives could not apply with equal force to his contemporaries.'

The domestic occurrence, which gave rise to Milton's writings on divorce, is well known: but a part of the observations here made on them is worth recording:

'We cannot fully understand the merits of Milton's productions on this subject, without entering a little into the history of the question. The laws respecting marriage, of which Milton complains, and which have since become fixed as principles on the subject in all Christian countries, are a branch of the canon law. They originated in the times of Popery, and have a very obvious tendency to strengthen the power of the hierarchy, by attributing to it the privilege of interfering in and deciding upon the dearest and most intimate connection which subsists among human creatures. At the period therefore of the change of religion, which was effected in the century previous to that in which Milton lived, it became a very serious question among the Reformers, whether the law of marriage did not require revision, in common with a multitude of laws, in which the church, in the period of papal usurpation, had interposed its authority. Luther, Melancthon, Martin Bucer, Grotius, and many others held the affirmative of this proposition. The whole body of those men, who opposed the government of Charles the First, and whose opposition brought on the civil war, were of opinion that the Church of England, as established in the time of Elizabeth, was not sufficiently reformed from the errors of Popery. They particularly objected to prelacy, liturgies, and many other institutions, which made a part of it. This therefore seemed to be a time eminently suited to the enquiry, whether the reformers above named or their opponents were in the right on the subject of marriage. The question indeed was held to be of such importance at the period in which Milton wrote, that in the year 1646 Selden, the prodigy of his time, who was regarded by his contemporaries as an oracle of reason and learning, who had read every thing, and by whom nothing was ever forgotten, published a treatise in defence of the very same principle that Milton maintained, intitled *Uxor Hebraica*. It can therefore scarcely be doubted that Milton's treatises on divorce added greatly to his consideration in the literary world. At the same time, from the delicacy and moment of the question he treated, and its peculiar application to his domestic history, it will readily be believed that they opened the mouths of cavillers and censurers against his reputation.'

Milton did not desert Cromwell when he dispersed the Long Parliament and the Council of State, and assumed the supreme power, but (as Mr. G. observes) took the part of endeavouring to coax the usurper to give his country a free government; and the stern republican is here represented as bowing to Cromwell's

well's authority, with the intention of inducing him to render service to the state. Mr. G. contents himself with stating,

'That Milton,' some time in May, 1654, 'presented to Cromwel by the hands of Andrew Marvel, his *Defensio Secunda pro Populo Anglicano*, which is distinguished, among other memorable features, by a delicate flattery toward that extraordinary man, less calculated to soothe his ambition and love of power, than to stimulate him by a consideration of the favour with which Providence had distinguished him, and the opportunity put into his hands to secure the character and liberty of his country to the latest generations, to consider himself as placed on a stage that would render the disinterestedness or iniquity of his proceedings imperishable. Never did a private man, not to say a servant of the government, talk to the individual in whose hands the supreme power of that government was reposed, in a tone of more manly expostulation, or more conscientious and fervent exhortation, than Milton has employed in this work.'

Of the *Defensio Secunda*, Mr. Godwin says,

'It is beyond comparison the most admirable of the prose-works of Milton. It is in reply, in hunting an adversary through all his windings, and turning all his seeming advantages into weapons for his entire discomfiture, that the great mastery of a controversialist is shown; and in all these qualities Milton was never excelled. He also speaks of himself, provoked by the savage attacks of his antagonists, in the most graceful manner; he convinces you that he is one of the greatest and most virtuous of mankind, without once falling into those littlenesses of vanity, which are so apt to break out in a man talking advantageously of himself. And, finally, the fervour of his patriotism raises him to an almost superhuman eloquence, and he pours out the dictates of his virtuous anxieties for the public good, in strains, that scarcely any man can listen to, without becoming for the time like unto him.

'After the publication of the *Defensio Secunda*, Milton ceased for some years to write on political subjects, except in the single instance of a closing performance in the controversy begun with Salmasius, which he named, perhaps significantly, *Joannis Miltoni Defensio pro Se*, Milton's Defence for Himself (hereby insinuating that there was no longer a public to defend).'

On Cromwell's government, Mr. Godwin passes the following judgment:

'His measures towards foreign courts were full of ability and decision, and well calculated to sustain the character and political influence of his country. His intelligence was amazing; and it was principally by this means that he baffled all the intrigues of the royalists. But his internal policy was feeble, variable, and highly injurious to the temper and political courage of his countrymen. He was no doubt considerably soured by the inflexible opposition of the men, whom in his heart he esteemed the most. Whether out of deference to the opinion of those who had originally raised him to power, or from some remains of the love of liberty in his own breast,

he instituted, by the very instrument that gave himself his office, a memorable equality in the representation of his country. But representatives so chosen, could never be made subordinate to his will. They began with questioning the functions and foundation of his office. Cromwell therefore never called a parliament, but to commit violence upon it, to disgrace the name of parliament, or to disgrace himself. The whole of his ill-omened administration for a term of nearly five years, was a series of despicable experiments on the nature of government, calculated to bring the very names of patriotism and republic into contempt.'

Milton, it is remarked, 'felt bitterly his disappointment in the man whom he had considered as above all others qualified to be the saviour of England, and the guardian genius of liberty:'

'Officially he had no concern but with the foreign politics of Cromwel, and his foreign politics he for the most part approved; therefore he did not abdicate his post of Latin secretary. But he absented himself from court, except when absolutely called thither by his duties. He says of himself in a letter, dated December 18. 1657, to a young friend who had written to him to solicit the office of secretary to our ambassador in Holland: "I am grieved that it is not in my power to serve you in this point, inasmuch as I have very few familiarities with the *gratiosi* of the court, who keep myself almost wholly at home, and am willing to do so." '

In commenting on the bad faith observed at the Restoration, Mr. G. with reason exclaims:

'It is astonishing that Milton was not made one of the victims in this sanguinary scene, and that the ministers of Charles the Second did not consummate their treachery, in the extinction of the future author of Paradise Lost. One would have imagined that the man who vindicated the destruction of Charles the First, with such reasonings, and in such a style, as to have excited the astonishment and admiration of Europe, would have been held incomparably more guilty by the friends of the Stuart family, than the counsellor who was appointed to plead against him, the officer who kept the court, or the clerk who took minutes of the proceedings.'

The prime agent in this treachery cannot, we think, be more happily described than we here see him:

'The author of the Declaration of Breda, and of these repeated violations of the faith of that declaration towards the regicides and towards all persons dissenting from the Church of England and the liturgy, was the Earl of Clarendon. By a singular destiny all the folly, the impolicy, and the guilt of his administration has been swallowed up in his character as an historian; and in consideration of his having enriched the world with an admirable narrative of the adversities of Charles the First, posterity have been inclined to forgive him all the enormities he perpetrated as first minister of Charles the Second. It has

been computed that sixty thousand persons suffered on a religious account under these persecutions, and that of this number five thousand perished in prison.'

A work of the younger Philips, in ridicule of judicial astrology, gives occasion to the author to collect very curious traits to shew the great credit in which this pretended science was at that time held:

'I have now,' says the biographer, 'lying before me a volume, in which the most popular Ephemerides for 1660, to the number of fourteen, are bound together, written by William Lilly, George Wharton, John Gadbury, Joseph Blagrave, William Dade, George Rose, John Woodhouse, Vincent Prince, Vincent Wing, and others. These, though now swept away into long oblivion, were once the oracles of their times; ladies, who commanded all other hearts, trembled at their mummeries; and generals and statesmen, who lay claim to the gratitude of a distant posterity, dared not enter on the execution of their projects, till they had consulted their science, and obtained their sanction.

'William Lilly was the most eminent of these worthies at the period of which we are treating. He had arrived by means of his various publications to such a degree of popularity in the year 1647, that a coach and four horses were sent at that time to fetch him and John Booker, his most eminent rival in art, to Windsor, to the head-quarters of General Fairfax, who enquired of them with great anxiety as to the future success of his arms. Lilly, who took upon him to be the spokesman on this occasion, assured him with all fitting solemnity, that he might be "confident of God's going along with him and his army, until the great work for which he ordained them both was perfected, the conquering and subversion of his and the parliament's enemies, and then a quiet settlement and firm peace over all the nation, unto God's glory, and full satisfaction of tender consciences." The same worthies were in the following year conducted to the siege of Colchester, where by their assurances of the success of the undertaking, the soldiers were greatly encouraged to perseverance and valour. Lilly was at the same period, for no one knew better than he how to play an even game with opposite parties, consulted upon the choice of lucky hours and fortunate means for King Charles's escape from Hampton Court and Carisbrook Castle. A short time before the dispersion of the Long Parliament by Cromwel in 1653, he was called before their committee for some disrespectful things he had said of the Presbyterians in his Ephemeris for that year, and extricated himself with his usual knavery. In 1659 Lilly received a gold chain from the King of Sweden, in recompense of many fine things he had prophesied of that monarch, all of which were not long after attended with opposite events.'

It is well known that Milton, while composing his *Paradise Lost*, laboured under the most trying calamities. Mr. Godwin deems it probable that it was not commenced till the period of the Restoration:—it was published in the year 1667. He

successfully disputes the notion of its late fame, thirteen hundred copies of it having been sold within two years after its publication, and a new edition prepared under the superintendance of the author in 1674. At its first appearance, also, Sheffield, Roscommon, and Dryden spoke of it in the most lofty terms; before the abdication of James, it had reached a third edition; and, soon after the Revolution, not only *Paradise Lost* but all the other considerable poems of this great author were translated into Latin. Great stress is here laid on the suffrage of Dennis; who, at this early period, was a critic in fashion: but, in panegyrising *Paradise Lost*, he is considered not so much as declaring his own sentiments as retailing those of the wits of the age, with all of whom he associated. It were strange, indeed, if party-heats could for a moment have thrown into the shade a production so transcendant: on the contrary, we may rest assured that, wherever it met with readers, it found enraptured admirers; and that men of taste of every party were eager to bear testimony to its excellence. The facts collected in these pages amply bear us out in this conclusion. Even had the biographer been less furnished with proofs, he might safely have scouted the silly idea of secret love, and that of the poem bursting into view at the Revolution. We agree with him in thinking that man is not so poor a creature as Dr. Johnson imagines; and 'that Englishmen,' however debased by the events of the times, 'were of too generous a frame of spirit to want to be taught by the king what to admire, and to wait till a new revolution should loose their political fetters, before they would venture to give breath to their approbation.'

This remark brings us to the close of that part which respects Milton, and with it may be said very much to diminish the interest of the volume. Indeed, if it be not altogether lost, it is because the author takes occasion to make excursions into the history of the period, in which we rarely follow him without finding ourselves amply compensated for our trouble. He enters into a very full chronological account of the publications of the Philipses: but here we shall not be expected to attend him, or to observe on works of which the general reader has never heard, and few of which are known even to the antiquary. Indeed, the productions of the younger Philips are mere things of the day, in a most profligate and abandoned age; compositions distinguished by ribaldry, buffoonery, and obscenity, in which he outrages his early principles, and his instructor and relative. A claim is advanced for him, that he had the merit of turning judicial astrology into ridicule: but we do not see that his efforts tended so much to put this imposture to shame, as to press it into the service of the triumphant cause.

These

These scurrilous filthy poems contributed little towards this desirable end; and astrology was suppressed by the growing light of subsequent times. John Philips also exercised his pen in translations; and it is here made a matter of great wonder that he was able to finish some of them in the time allotted to him: but it does not follow that, though they appeared under his name, they were wholly rendered into English by him. Before the end of the reign, our scornful cavalier, it appears, ranges under the banners of the disaffected, becomes the intimate associate of the infamous Oates, and writes a tract in his defence; 'lest,' to adopt the language of Mr. Godwin on the occasion, 'his beloved friend Titus Oates should be bereaved of the opportunity of committing more murders.' — In the author's narrative of the Popish plot, which is related with signal distinctness, we are sorry to discover any thing like a doubt started whether the horrid fabrications contrived by Shaftsbury were sanctioned by the end which he proposed that they should answer; and much more were we shocked at its being pretended that the younger Philips might vindicate any share that he had in this nefarious business on the same wretched principle. This nephew of Milton we pronounce to be one of the last of mankind. We have therefore no need to say one word more of him, except again to state that we cannot conjecture what could induce Mr. Godwin to snatch his memory from oblivion.

Edward, the elder of the nephews, is much more a favourite with Mr. G., and appears to deserve the preference. He was infected early with cavalier notions, was a stickler for the Stuarts before the Restoration, and adopted the reigning principles of the times, but does not ever seem to have broken off the intercourse of duty and affection with his uncle. Mr. Godwin is at a loss to understand how this intercourse was carried on: but we see no difficulty. We are inclined to suppose that, at the Restoration, Milton abandoned all political schemes and views; and that, while he was disgusted with the rant and excesses of the younger of his nephews, he might see the elder without displeasure sailing down with the tide of the times. The employments of this person are of a more respectable kind, and his publications are of a better sort. He was tutor to John Evelyn, Esq. junior, to the seventh Earl of Pembroke, and to Isabella, daughter and heir of the Earl of Arlington, and who was afterward Duchess of Grafton. He was also engaged in a continuation of Baker's Chronicle, and in that of Speed's Theatre of Great Britain; besides being the author of *The World of Words*, of a work intitled *Theatrum Poetarum*, and of the invaluable well-known memoir of his uncle. It is

singular that this precious document was prefixed by him to a Latin translation of the *Letters of State*, without a name; and every circumstance shews that this worthy person had not the most distant notion of the approaching unrivalled fame of his illustrious relative.

With all his labour, Mr. Godwin is unable to give any account of the respective deaths of his two heroes: but, having often regretted the success of his industry in tracing details respecting the living persons, we should be unreasonable, we think, if we allowed ourselves to complain of this last defect. — We have now reached the end of our course, and are rejoiced at its termination; since the regular journey has been irksome and fatiguing in the extreme, though the frequent excursions made in its course afforded us very considerable relief. Abundance of invaluable matter lies interspersed through this bulky volume, but on the plan of combining it with the lives of the Philipses we cannot bestow our approbation.

ART. XI. *Poems and Imitations.* By Daniel Cabanel, of Lincoln's Inn, Esq. 8vo. pp. 192. 10s. Boards. Bickerstaff. 1814.

THE first and longest poem in this collection was originally printed in 1811, and (as we learn from the preface) obtained favorable public notice. It is composed in blank-verse, and contains a rather extended account of '*British Scenery*,' which the author has chosen for the title of it. He speaks of himself as 'a contemplative wanderer, from his youth;' yet we find little of *contemplation* in this poem, which is of a character altogether *descriptive*, and, in the comparatively short space of 65 pages, travels over the greater part of the British isles, and notices most of the scenes which such a journey brings under view. Perhaps this is the sort of subject for which blank-verse is best adapted; and accordingly we find the descriptive passages of Thomson and Cowper among the most successful of their writings. The art, however, is so to blend observation with description, that each picture may appear to draw forth its appropriate reflections: but the poem before us effects too little in this way, and consequently wants interest to excite the attention of the reader. The composition of the poetry, too, is monotonous. Blank-verse requires much greater variety of rhythm and cadence, than verse in rhyme; and we meet with very little to answer the demand for variety in the present instance. We must also object against such expressions as the following:

'Make Religion, — Ton!' P. 25.

'Pure

'Pure as upland *Ether*.' P. 46.

——— 'and hoary Eld
Is furnish'd for the chambers of the grave.' P. 8.

'The nearskip.' P. 21.

'Their quondam Queen.' P. 63.

The ensuing passage, part of an address to Wales, is perhaps one of the happiest specimens of the author's manner:

'Hail mystic scenes! romantic visions hail!
Where — (were not sublunary bliss deny'd
To mortal man, by Heaven's all-wise decree,)
Th' extatic soul might wander unconfin'd,
Nor lift to happier realms its lengthen'd view;
But chain'd to dust; the nobler part extinct —
Pant still to be a worm, and linger here —
Happy the man whose well-accorded mind
Tumultuous passions flee! with heart attun'd,
To Nature's minstrelsy; whose every sense
Vibrates responsive to the tuneful choir
That line the hedge, or quiver on the bough,
Loading the gale with wild untutor'd sounds.
To him this "visible diurnal sphere,"
Surmounted by its glorious canopy,
Imparts sensations, noble — vast — sublime —
Such as the plodder on this earthly scene
Nor feels; — nor comprehends; a moving clod
Absorpt in love of gain: to whom this globe,
This wonder of Creation, yields no charms,
Disrob'd of self; contracted narrow self!
Interest his God, to whom he immolates
Each finer feeling, and each nobler aim.
I love the child of Nature, form'd to taste
Her glowing prospects; o'er her varied views
To gaze with eye of rapture; and adore
Th' Almighty cause! th' Artificer supreme! —
Fruitless the chase of him who pants for wealth
Or worldly grandeur: what is wealth, or power,
To the poor tenant, whose precarious term
Each hour may cancel? every moment end!
Why, mad Ambition, covet wreaths that fade?
Grasp at immortal palms, more fitting Man,
And twine celestial laurels round thy brow!'

We cannot omit to notice with disapprobation the writer's sentiments on the subject of Catholic-emancipation, (pp. 52, 53.) on which he appears to enter with feelings that are at least a century too old.

The next piece is called *The Tocsin*, an admonitory and descriptive poem, in rhyme, and which was also first published in 1811. It has more merit than that which precedes it; but, here

here again, the subjects are too much crowded, and do not appear to be artfully selected or combined: it is a poem consisting of detached parts, and possessing no peculiar character as a whole. *Description* is evidently the favorite style of the author; and it is to be expected that he should be most successful when he works most from inclination. Of all the subjects of description, none can be more magnificent than the Alps: yet Mr. C. dismisses them very shortly, — passes them with the rapidity of Hannibal, or Bonaparte, — and, giving a hasty glance at

'Geneva's lengthen'd lake;'
'The rapid fury of the dashing Rhone;'
'The vintage lingering in the plain;'

and

'The stately turrets of Turin;'

he hurries to the description of Rome, and the reflections which the view of that city inspires:

'Hail Rome! uniquely great — 'twas thine t' *obtain*
Ascendancy supreme o'er humbled *Man*;
Since not to martial deeds alone confin'd
Thy power could vassalize the nobler mind:
Thy conquering legions laid the mighty low —
Thy breath made Europe's proudest monarchs bow.
E'en now some remnants of thy pristine state
Remain stupendous, and in ruin great —
Entire Vitruvius' matchless Dome appears,
Th' increasing wonder of successive years;
Nor shall thy structure, Buonarotti, claim
Inferior notice in the rolls of Fame.
The Amphitheatre's august remains —
The mutilated shafts, and mouldering fanes —
The arch triumphal richly storied o'er —
Attest the arts of Rome in days of yore:
No limits could her general Empire bound —
For Genius, Arms, and Eloquence renown'd!
'Twas here, the glory of the Mantuan plains,
Immortal Maro, pour'd his polish'd strains; —
Here Tasso with poetic phrenzy glow'd; —
Here — Ariosto's magic numbers flow'd;
Here — Metastasio dramatiz'd his lays; —
Here — Petrarch tun'd his reed to Laura's praise;
And here — recumbent in the myrtle grove —
Soft Guarini smooth'd the strain of love —
Sweet son of harmony — how rich thy song!
What honied accents trickled from thy tongue!
Tenderer, than love-despairing Damsel's sighs!
Softer, than Sylphid's airy symphonies!
Here — crown'd with crimson laurels, Julius shone —
Unpeopled realms, and made a world his own;

Unhappy

Unhappy Julius! doom'd, too late, to find
Man's hopes deceitful—and Ambition blind.—
Here too—the guardian of the public weal,
Persuasive Tully, nurs'd his Patriot Zeal:
Soft as the sober Liris glides along—
Or as the torrent of Vulturnus, strong—
He oratory's ductile powers display'd,
And all her various arts by turns essay'd.—
But nobler palms self-conquering Scipio won—
Whose worth Iberia's hostile records own;
Iberia—where the youthful Victor glow'd
Invincible—and half-appear'd a God!—
To swell the pomp, and crown his trophied fame,
Depress'd—a purple-vested Princess came;
With graceful ease her wanton tresses wav'd,
Her matchless beauty every heart enslav'd;—
Behind—her captive Lord mov'd slow along,
The fetter'd victim of the gazing throng:
O'er her fair form a silent sadness hung;—
Imperfect accents falter'd on her tongue;—
Tho' much she wish'd—grief left no power to tell
How dear the life of him she lov'd so well!—
The car-borne Conqueror mark'd her lovely fear—
Heard the deep sigh—and saw the starting tear;
His godlike heart a generous flame confess'd—
And all the Roman glow'd within his breast!—
Forbid it Heaven! (he cried) No!—tho' I feel
Through every pore Love's subtle poison steal—
Tho' fires—(unfelt before)—my breast inflame,
And Love, resistless Despot, conquers Fame!
Heaven wills Love sacred—chaste—and unconfin'd—
No slave to Power;—but chainless as the wind!
Can Power direct the workings of the soul,
That own no law, and soar beyond controul?
Its dictates to pursue alone can give
Earth's choicest bliss—and make it life to live!
So did th' all-wise decree of Jove *ordain;*
When Love, his best of gifts, he gave to *man!*
Then—take from me, unhappy Prince! (he cry'd)—
Take to thy arms once more—thy beauteous bride;
Nor her alone;—resume thy former state!
'Tis Scipio's gift! be happy—and be great—
As thus the glorious chief his thoughts express'd,
And prov'd the virtue of a Roman breast:
While the bless'd pair with grateful wonder glow'd—
Applausive murmurs echoed through the crowd.'

Mr. Cabanel, however, should have some authority for making 'Guarini' a word of *four* syllables. He calls the Liris '*sober*:' but Horace seems to have regarded it as more addicted to eating than drinking: "*Ruris quæ Liris quietâ* mordet *aquâ.*"

Of

Of the Miscellaneous Poems, the character is in course very various. Effusions at particular times or places are usually more interesting to the authors of them than to indifferent readers; to whom indeed they seldom give much gratification, unless there is something peculiar in the place or the time which excites them. One of the best is the following, written at Ferrara, after having visited the tomb of Ariosto:

'Ye willows green, that wide extend
O'er moist Ferrara's marshy shore,
Your heads in pitying languor bend,
And mourn your fav'rite bard — no more!

'Ye reeds that skirt his hallow'd grave,
Where wildly wanders down the vale
His Parent stream;—still wilder wave,
And sigh along the passing gale!

'For *here*, your poet wildly great —
His magic numbers sweetly sung;
And *here*, inexorable Fate!
For ever stopp'd his tuneful tongue!

'Yet still Orlando shall survive,
While cold, Orlando's Poet lies;
Though Fate forbids the Bard to live —
His wreath of laurel *never dies*.'

The 'Imitations' are all from the Italian, and consist of pieces which are very well known to those who are acquainted with Italian poetry. We cannot compliment Mr. Cabanel by saying that they appear to us to have much of the *manner* of the originals; while to a literal expression of the sense they do not, in course, pretend. Indeed, in a passage at the end of the notes, Mr. C. tells us that, when he has not been able to translate literally with any degree of felicity, he has introduced an idea of his own; adding, that some other liberties of the same kind have been occasionally taken, in endeavouring to render the sense in different specimens: which, he hopes, may be allowable in one who professes to be merely an imitator. We doubt whether this species of partial and unfaithful *translation* can be properly called *imitation;* which implies, if not some originality, at least an original adaptation of the ideas borrowed;—as for example, Johnson's exquisite imitations of Juvenal, and Pope's imitations of Horace:—but, without being too strict as to terms, we cannot bestow commendation on these pieces, whether they are to be called 'Imitations' or not. Let the reader peruse this beautiful passage from the Aminta, and judge whether the impassioned manner of Tasso is caught in the translation:

"*Fors*

" *Forse se tu gustassi una volta*
La millessima parte delle gioie
Che gusta un cor' amato riamando,
Diresti ripentito sospirando
Perduto è tutto 'l tempo
Che in amar non si spende.
Oh! mia fuggita etade!
Quante vedove notti
Quanti di solitarj-
Ho consumato indarno,
Che si poteano impiegar' in quest' uso!
Il qual, piu replicato, è più soave.
Cangia, cangia, consilio,
Pazzarella che sei,
Che'l pentirsi da sezzo nulla giova."
Aminta. Atto 1. Sce. 1.

'Had you the bliss, Myrtillo, prov'd,
Of loving, and of being lov'd;
Had you the nameless rapture known,
When kindred souls unite in one;
You'd think,— (so sweet the hours would move)
All moments lost, but those of love:
Ah me! on meaner themes intent —
How many useless years I've spent?
How many useless days are flown,
That pass'd unsocial and alone! —
Relinquish, then, deluded swain,
Pursuits so trivial and so vain;
Participated joys bestow
More bliss than Solitude can know:
To higher, sweeter, pleasures move —
And own no bliss like that of love.'

The lines

'Happy the man who views your eyes,
Happier for whom Belinda sighs,' &c. (p. 176.)

are not correct as a translation of the Italian, which runs:

" *Felice chi vi mira*
Ma più felice chi per voi sospira
Felicissimo poi
Che sospirando fa sospirar voi," &c.

The least successful, perhaps, of these attempts at rendering the almost untranslatable delicacy of the Italian Muse is that of the charming piece from Metastasio, frequently called " *La Partenza,*" and beginning, " *Ecco quel fiero istante! Nice, mia Nice, addio.*" (See page 168. of this collection.) Translations from the Italian have seldom been happy. One translator endeavours to represent the *spirit* which the originals every where display; while another, like Hoole, attempts to express the

the tenderness for which they are equally remarkable. To effect both objects, perhaps, requires facilities which nothing but that most poetical of *languages* can afford. At all events, when so little has been done towards rendering Italian poetry *in general* into English, it is hardly to be expected that an attempt to introduce some of their choicest passages will be attended with a fortunate result; and Mr. Cabanel's Imitations, though respectable, have certainly not supplied this desideratum in our literature.

Mr. C. appears to have been long a votary of the Muses, some of the pieces in this collection being dated nearly 30 years ago. The Ode to Justice, which was a school-exercise, written at even an earlier period, and which is printed in the "*Carmina Carthusiana*" for 1780, is one of the best specimens in the volume. The common effect of the lapse of time on the poet is to slacken his spirit, and to increase his correctness: but this does not appear to have been the case in the present instance; the earlier poems (and particularly that to which we have just referred) being more correct and in better taste than the later and larger productions. We have already observed that the blank-verse is deficient in variety of cadence: but, with this exception, it is not without ease and harmony. In the other works, we discover some very bad rhymes; such as *cry'd* and *destroy'd*, *near* and *war*, *soil* and *beguile*, *obtain* and *man*, *glow'd* and *God*, &c. We have also Elysium most unclassically spelt 'Elizium.'

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, FOR DECEMBER, 1815.

POETRY.

Art. 12. *Œnone to Paris:* translated from Ovid. With the Latin Text and a few Notes. Crown 8vo. 1s. 6d. White and Cochrane. 1815.

The author of this new translation of Œnone to Paris offers it as a specimen of an entire version of the Heroic Epistles, being desirous of ascertaining the opinion of the public on his merits as a translator of this portion of Ovid. As far as we can answer for that opinion, we would encourage him to proceed; thinking that he has shewn an acquaintance with the style and character of his original, a command of elegant versification, and a propriety of language, that give us the best promise for his due fulfilment of such a task. Let him not fail to bestow the same pains on the remainder of his volume which he has obviously allotted to the commencement, and we may already congratulate him on the classical honours which are waiting to reward his laudable attempt.

"Nec tibi, si sapias," &c.

'Dream not that *she* will new admirers shun,
Who with such ease to your embrace was won;
Vain hope! hereafter, as Atrides now,
Shall Paris curse the frailty of her vow,
Who burns for him, as once with equal flame
For her last favourite burn'd th' inconstant dame:
In woman virtue ne'er resumes her throne,
But, once relinquish'd, is for ever flown!
How blest the lot of faithful Hector's wife!
Yet still more blest would glide Œnone's life,
Would'st thou, by Hector taught, vouchsafe to prove
The thousand joys that wait on constant love;
But thou art frailer than the ripen'd ear,
When golden fields proclaim the harvest near,
And lighter than the leaves, when Autumn's breeze
Shakes the dead foliage from the sapless trees!'

Some parts of this passage would allow of condensation, but on the whole it is very well translated.

Art. 13. *Kenilworth;* a Mask, by J. S. Anna Liddiard. 8vo. 7s. sewed. Longman and Co. 1815.

The subject of this poem is the fête given by the Earl of Leicester to our good Queen Bess at Kenilworth-castle, and it has afforded us considerable amusement and frequent fits of laughter. It manifests a bold spirit of originality, as well as a hardiness of language, that really are quite striking. Witness the first couplet:

'What silence reigns, where once gay *revels danced*
Where high-born knights on *trapping'd* coursers pranced.'

There is something remarkable, too, in the pleasing intermixture of seasons at that eventful period: poor hapless Kenilworth being condemned to endure at once the chilly rigours of Winter, and the Summer's scorching heat:

'This court, to soft voluptuousness a prey,
Unsheltered now — stems Summer's burning ray;
The wintry snows and storms around it rave,
And sink it hourly in time's whelming grave.'

The picture of the Queen making her entry into the court-yard, frisking and '*curvetting*' on her favourite palfrey Gondibert, is finely drawn:

'She bows to all with condescension sweet,
All press around their sovereign to greet;
The attendant grooms can scarce her steed restrain;
He spurns the ground, as of his burden vain,
And champs his golden bit with proud disdain;
Then, high curvetting, seems to tread on air;
This ardent spirit pleased the royal fair:
Of all her stud she most liked Gondibert.'

The

The Earl of Leicester, better known in this poem by the respectful term 'Master of the Revels,' comes forth to greet and to *pleasure* his royal guest:

'The Master of the Revels there was seen
And all prepared to *pleasure* England's Queen.'

Whereupon, the festivities commence; and the floating island makes its appearance on the lake, embellished and attended by Nymphs, Naiads, and a multitude of other watery inhabitants, who sing a choral song of praise and welcome to the Queen. Sundry messengers from old Thames are introduced, bearing urns of gold, and other precious materials, to be laid at her feet. Neptune's Satellites and Tritons, who make a considerable commotion among the waters, are next presented for the same purpose:

'And who is he so roughly *splashing by*
Who views the passing nymphs with jealous eye?' &c.

'"Triton's my name."'

At the conclusion of these amusements, the whole company repair to the Banquet-room; where, having reveled and *pleasured* themselves again for a considerable time, in all the true spirit of conviviality and merriment, after having crowned the sparkling goblets until the hour of midnight, and till they were one and all, we conceive, in a most happy state of inebriety, the bell is rung, bed-candles and chamber-maids are demanded, and host and guests, with one accord, betake themselves to repose.

Such is the first day's fête at Kenilworth. We lament to be obliged to decline all mention of the rest of the entertainment; of the interesting contest between Cecil and Cobham, rivals, for the heart and hand of the Lady Helena; and of the prognostications of the Merlin, who foresees so divinely, about three centuries beforehand, the triumphs of England, the deliverance of Spain and Portugal, the glory of Wellington, and the downfall of Bonaparte. — In taking leave, we commend this fair author to a *re-perusal* of her grammar and her horn-book, as well as some farther study of Mrs. Barbauld's lessons for children. When she is farther advanced in the elements, and has *un*taught herself the happy art of metamorphosing nouns into verbs, and making participles out of adjectives and adverbs, we shall be proud to announce her to the world as the wonder of the age; till that time, we must repeat her own words to her,

'Farewell, from poetry refrain.'

Art. 14. *Sir Wilibert de Waverley;* or, The Bridal Eve. A Poem. By Eliza S. Francis, Author of "The Rival Roses," &c. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Leigh. 1815.

Ut Rosa flos florum, sic est liber iste librorum! Yes, even "the Rival Roses" must yield to Sir Wilibert de Waverley; the engaging alliteration of whose very name prepossessed us in his favour. "Hush'd be every ruder breeze;" and with all the gentle preparation that ushered in the heroine of "The Foundling," the charming 'Sophia' of our favourite novelist, let our indulgent readers be led to welcome with a smile the soft, the refined, Sir Wilibert de Waverley. Be it known

known, then, to all present that Sir Wilibert is in love with the fair Geraldine, who not as yet

'*Beheld the close of years eighteen:*'

but as to her lover, — alas!

'*His age her father's years might greet;*'

and still more unfortunately he not only was as old as her *father*, but had actually been enamoured of her *mother*, previously to her own appearance on this mortal scene!

Shortly after this event took place, the fair apparent was entrusted to the care of Sir Willy; and, at the commencement of this story, Geraldine being then just rising eighteen, her tender-hearted guardian is about to leave her under the protection of his own aged mother, and proceed to the Holy Land. Much grief is excited by his departure: but

—— 'tears *will wash* our grief away!
The maiden grew compos'd, *nay, gay;*
And oft her frolics would beguile
From the grave dame a pensive smile.'

During these 'frolics and pensive smiles,'

'Three years were passed in Paynim land;'

and, just as poor Sir Willy is returning to England, he is taken prisoner, and carried into Africa,—but

'Is bold—succeeds—and he is free at last,'

'Escapes from Afric into Asia's plain,'

and is here so completely overwhelmed with gratitude for his liberation, that he stays in Asia till he grows quite grey!!! As he is kneeling before the Holy Shrine, a stranger comes to him, and recognizes him by his *hazel eye*; exclaiming, pleasingly,

'Sure, if I may believe mine eye, *
I now behold De Waverley!'

The stranger does his best to persuade De Waverley to go home with him: but no! Sir Wilibert

——'thinks it right a while to dwell
Far, far, from wordly joys away,'

and therefore only sends a locket by the stranger, not containing *hair*, our readers may be assured, Sir Willy being by this time as grey as a badger, but a crystal heart. With this ingenious emblem, the stranger sets out for Great Britain. Some time afterward, Sir Wilibert himself follows: but, meanwhile, his aged mother, having heard that he had fallen into the hands of the Algerines, dies of grief, and Geraldine is left completely alone: when

—— 'as a Phœnix shone the dame,
Consumed amidst her own bright flame.'

* Quere, *thine* eye? from the context.

As she is one day playing on the harp, a stranger-knight comes behind her, who is the heir to the title and estate of De Waverley, if Sir Wilibert does not return. Sir Alwyn, in a word, is a very pretty fellow:

—— 'through the long lashes of his eye
Such dazzling beams effulgent fly,' *

that &c. &c. &c. *and* the fair Geraldine falls in love with him, *but* struggles against the feeling,—*yet* yields to it. At this critical juncture, arrives the crystal heart, and the faithless bearer.

—— 'Tells a garbled tale replete
With broken truth and vile deceit,'

viz. that Sir Wilibert is false, &c. &c. He then begins to make love for himself, but wholly fails. Presently, however, some armed men come in and seize Geraldine; Sir Alwyn rescues her; and the consequence is that the rescuer and the rescued mutually yield to a passion equally pure, sincere, and lasting. On the bridal eve, arrives poor Sir Willy, in the character of a Friar of Orders *Grey;* and, on asking who is going to be married, he is told 'to take a glance' and he will see. Having ascertained who they are, he generously acquiesces in their arrangements, and determines to 'pay his orisons' in their neighbourhood during the rest of his life.

Art. 15. *Sacred Sketches from Scripture History.* By Mrs. Henry Rolls. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Law and Whitaker. 1815.

We think that this little volume, containing a collection of poems on different parts of Scripture History, is intitled to much praise. The subjects are interesting, and selected with judgment; the versification, though occasionally somewhat tame, is for the most part unobjectionable; and, though not peculiarly striking in point of brilliancy, the work displays throughout considerable marks of poetic taste, and frequently strong powers of imagination. If it be desirable, therefore, to diffuse, as widely as we can, the knowlege of the sacred writings, it is not impossible that this publication may tend, *delectando pariterque monendo*, though in a contracted sphere, to assist so admirable and important a purpose. Not that it is with any such exalted idea that the fair author seems to have been induced to send it into the world, but rather in the humble hope that some perhaps of the younger part of the community, who have neither talents nor inclination for laborious research, may be induced to listen to the notes of poetry, and thus acquire a taste for the beauties of Scripture through the fascinating influence of the Muse. All judicious designs of communicating knowlege are doubtless, in themselves, highly meritorious; and when not only the purpose is laudable, but the execution is happy, we most gladly hasten to announce our approbation of the work.

NOVELS.

Art. 16. *Howard.* By John Gamble, Esq. Author of "Irish Sketches," "Sarsfield," &c. 12mo. 2 Vols. 9s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1815.

* What follows is burlesqued from Romeo and Juliet.

Mr. Gamble here occasionally describes scenes which are so little adapted to the contemplation of our fair readers, that we hesitate to recommend this novel to their perusal: he also retains his old habit of quoting irreverently the words of Scripture; and some passages of the work are very reprehensible on that account. Several of his expressions are affected, and others ungrammatical; such as Vol. i. p. 74. 'Had my hero written the *entire* of his story:' p. 87. 'the *emotion* of the coach made her sick,' &c.; and we shall not be considered as too difficult if we object to the following long-winded epithets: Vol. ii. p. 194. 'the feeble sound of her vainly attempted to be raised voice:' p. 168. the long fixed, grief and sickness bowed down eyelid,' &c. However, the tale is simple, and sometimes pathetic, being written in a strain of melancholy feeling well suited to describe the discontented fatalist who is the principal character.

Art. 17. *System and no System*, or the Contrast. By Maria Benson, Author of Thoughts on Education. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Hatchard. 1815.

The title is scarcely applicable to this tale, because it displays no different systems of education or their effects in the family of Mr. and Mrs. Glanville; the young men who behave ill having been educated by the same parents under whose tuition Lucy becomes amiable. We would also caution Miss Benson against beginning a tale as she has commenced in the present instance, by launching forth in praise of Mrs. Glanville's angelic patience; since the reader, who is quite in the dark as to what may have been the sorrows of his new acquaintance, can have no chance of sympathizing with her. The example of Lucy, however, will be useful; the story is sufficiently interesting; and the fair author has throughout inculcated virtuous principles.

Art. 18. *Henri Le Grand, i. e.* Henry the Great. By Madame de Genlis. 12mo. 3 Vols. Paris; and reprinted in London for Colburn. 1815.

Madame de Genlis has here industriously collected the facts which are related, and the speeches which are recorded of Henry the Fourth of France: but, from a laudable anxiety to avoid amplification or imaginary embellishment, she has made her book somewhat dry, and has failed to excite the lively interest which might have been expected from the history of that great and amiable character. Those among our fair readers who remember how much this lady *made out*, from the materials furnished by St. Simon, respecting Madame de la Vallière, the Duke de Lauzun, &c. may feel surprized at her not having introduced a single love-affair into the memoirs of so galant a prince as *Henri Quatre*: but she deserves praise for the clearness of her narration, and it may be safely put into the hands of youth.

Art. 19. *L'Hermitage St. Jacques*, &c. *i. e.* The Hermitage of St. James; or, God, our King, and our Country. By M. Ducray-Duminil. 12mo. 4 Vols. Paris. 1815. London, imported by De Boffe. Price 18s.

In this very loyal performance, the author has not only dedicated his work to the Duchess of Angoulême, but has prefaced every

chapter or subdivision with an eulogium on the Bourbons, and has endeavoured, as he informs the reader, to delineate the virtues of his royal patroness in the character of Hesperia. We must acknowlege, however, that the present tale is not equal in merit to M. Duminil's former productions. Hesperia displays no other virtue than that of enduring troubles from which she cannot escape; and, when she is made to relate her father's adventures, her language is that of the author, rather than such as would be employed by a young lady in similar circumstances. Throughout, a wearisome sameness prevails in the conversations and incidents; all the villains are made to arrange their plots in audible whispers; and their intended victims, sure to be "on the listening order," thus escape from perils which we at length wished them to endure, for the sake of variety. The madness of Isabella is nevertheless well depicted in the third volume; and the scenes between her and Hesperia are not devoid of pathos.

Art. 20. *The Guerrilla Chief.* By Emma Parker, Author of "Elfrida Heiress of Belgrove," "Virginia, or the Peace of Amiens," and "Aretas." 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Lindsell. 1815.

An agreeable novel, in which the lively writer has introduced us to several pleasing characters, and has added zest to their history by supposing it to be connected with recent and interesting public events.

CLASSICS, &c.

Art. 21. *Latin Prosody made Easy.* By Wm. Shaw, D.D. Rector of Chelvery, Somerset. 8vo. pp. 56. Longman and Co.

This is any thing rather than that which its title would signify, and yet it is neither particularly elaborate nor greatly profound. When rules, which ought to be laid down with the greatest accuracy and perspicuity, are transformed into an unnatural and heterogeneous species of rhyming verse, the subject is rather obscured than illustrated, and the pupil naturally feels disposed to convert into ridicule that which is intended for his instruction and improvement.

We differ from the author with respect to the penultima of the word *semisopitus*, which he conceives to be short. With regard to the quantity of the first syllable of "*Proserpina*," we know but of one instance in which it is made short,

"*Quam penè furvæ regna Proserpinæ,*" Hor. Car. ii. 21.

though Horace himself also uses it long, 1 Car. xxviii. 20. and 2 Sat. v. 110.; and in Virgil it is invariably long:

"*Nec repetita sequi curet Proserpina matrem.*" Georg. i. l. 39.

"*Nondum illi flavum Proserpina vertice crinem Abstulerat.*" — Æneid iv. 698.

"*Hic sibi pulchra suum ferri Proserpina munus.*" Ib. vi. 142.

"*Casta licet patrui servet Proserpina limen.*" Ib. 402.

Had the author paid more attention to what appears his avowed object, namely, facilitating the rules of Latin prosody, he might have used some more explicit kind of language than

'T having *itis* runs like to break its neck;'

or than the following,

'Short crement give to MS, BS, PS,
Save Cyclops, Cecrops, hydrops, Seps, and plebs.'

The profound commentary on '*Os* its crement lengthens' is '*Os* lengthens its increment,' p. 16.

We should wish to see this work considerably improved and revised throughout, before we can recommend it for general use. A treatise on Latin prosody, we think, must be made much easier and be less open to objection than the present, in order to produce real benefit in any system of education.

Art. 22. *Etrennes à ma Fille*, &c.; *i. e.* A New-Year's Gift for my Daughter, or Evening Amusements for Young People. By Madame Dufrenoy. 12mo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1815. Imported by De Boffe. Price 10s.

These tales furnish few examples for very young persons, because, with the exception of one youthful bride of *twelve* years, most of the principal characters are married ladies, who may say, with the "Beauty" in Crabbe's poem,

"I'm twenty-five, — move on, thou lying year!
This is my age, and I will rest me here."

One of these ladies is represented as reclaiming a faithless husband by the hazardous expedient of assuming male attire, and in this disguise robbing him of her rival's affection: while another is made to acquire the regard of her lover by a fit of ill humour, and to increase his attachment by a display of coquetry. However, some stories in this collection have a less questionable tendency, and may be said to afford tolerable lessons of worldly prudence.

Art. 23. *M. Acci Plauti Comœdiæ quatuor, Amphitruo, Aululariæ, Captivi, Rudens, ad usum Scholarum. Notulis Anglicis & Glossario accommodatæ.* 12mo. pp. 246. Law. 1815.

We approve this little work both in its design and its execution. It contains four of the best Comedies of Plautus, with a text generally correct, and notes sufficiently explicit for tender capacities, without being so diffuse or so numerous as to supersede the necessity of diligence. The editor, intending it entirely for the use of schools, has been desirous of expunging the more exceptionable passages, in order to accommodate the selection to the minds of juvenile students; and he has even occasionally gone so far as to make partial alterations of the text, that he might preserve inviolate a perfect chastity of sentiment and language. This liberty, however, has been used throughout with moderation, and sometimes with much judgment; so that the volume may be safely committed to the hands of youths, without the least danger to the purest principles of morality. While it instructs them in the manners of antiquity in general, and

exemplifies those of Rome in particular, it will promote their advancement in the Latin tongue; and at the same time that it gives them the best possible ideas of Roman comedy, it will furnish their minds with the purest examples of colloquial phrase.

Art. 24. *French Pronunciation alphabetically exhibited;* with spelling Vocabularies and new Fables, French and English. By C. Gros. 12mo. pp. 115. Law and Co. 1815.

Forty-eight pages of this book are occupied by rules for pronouncing: but we have before stated it as our opinion, that the most elaborate printed directions are insufficient for teaching an accurate pronunciation of a foreign language. The spelling vocabularies may be useful, as well as the fables: the latter, however, are not *new*, being all borrowed from Æsop and La Fontaine, although such as are taken from the latter writer are here given in prose, and have suffered considerably from the alteration.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 25. *The Practical Expositor;* or Scripture illustrated by Facts, and arranged for every Day in the Year. By Charles Buck. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Williams and Son.

Though it is remarked that "a good horse cannot be of a bad colour," we will not say that a good book cannot have an improper title. Now, as *exposition* signifies *explanation*, or *interpretation*, we may object to the first part of the present title, which requires to be explained by the second part before the object or intention of the compiler can be clearly understood. A *practical expositor* is one who, having clearly developed the meaning of passages, deduces from them rules or maxims of conduct. Mr. Buck's design is not so much to interpret texts which are liable to be misunderstood, as to enforce the hints or precepts that they contain by apposite examples and anecdotes, which is intimated by the latter part of his title, *Scripture illustrated* (and he might have added *enforced*) *by Facts*. We refer it therefore to him, whether it would not be judicious to omit the first part of the title. Without, however, farther detaining the reader at the threshold of this work, looking at the shew-board, we shall invite him to a view of the interior; which, from the historical and biographical sketches which it displays, must be very attractive, particularly to young persons. Mr. Buck, who is *evangelical*, perhaps we should say methodistical *, has provided a short and amusing, though sometimes quaint, meditation for every day in the year; and at the head of each he has placed a text of Scripture, the moral and religious truth of which he endeavours to fix in the memory and to impress on the heart by apposite example and quotation.

* We cannot afford a stronger instance of Mr. Buck's methodistical bias, than the remark which he copies at p. 486. in the meditation for Christmas-day.

'Out of Christ God is not intelligible, much less amiable.' — What say the Psalmist, Ps. xix. 1. and Ps. xxxiii. 5.; and St. Paul, Romans, i. 20.?

As

As we have 366 texts (Mr. B. having taken a leap year) illustrated in the space of 491 pages, we need not say that each subject is discussed with great brevity. We select an example at random:

'(January 28.) Proverbs, x. 20. The heart of the wicked is little worth.—On this day, 1547, died, after a life distinguished by caprice, violence, and tyranny, Henry VIII. We cannot reflect on the vices of this prince without being shocked. How were all the appendages of majesty sullied by his cruelties and wickedness; and may we not here remark, that whatever be the external condition of a wicked man, he is loathsome in the sight of God. His lands, his house, his cattle, his estates, may have some value or worth in them, but he himself is an object of wretchedness and depravity. His mind is dark, his conversation is polluted, his affections are misplaced, his conduct an abomination to the Most High. Yet how many pride themselves in vain shew; spend their time in the pursuit of unlawful pleasures, and continually labour to set themselves off as something in the eyes of men; little thinking, that the attention paid them by their equals or inferiors does not arise from a sense of the excellency of their characters, but merely on account of what they possess. Socrates thus delivered himself to one who had a fine house and many splendid things, "What," saith he, "there are many come to see thy house and thy fine things there, but nobody comes to see *thee*; they know there is a worth in thy fine house, and in thy fine furniture, but they see no worth in *thee*." How applicable is this to many who, while they attract multitudes to behold their external grandeur and costly retinue, yet have no moral excellency to excite admiration or demand praise.'

This compilation must have cost Mr. B. some pains: but he may say on this occasion with Shakspeare, "The labour we delight in physics pain."

Art. 26. *A Narrative of the Proceedings of the Society called Quakers, within the Quarterly Meeting for London and Middlesex, against Thomas Foster,* for openly professing their primitive Doctrines concerning the Unity of God. 8vo. pp. 371. Longman and Co.

Disownment by the Society to which he formerly belonged, for professing his belief of the strict unity and essential placability of God, with other doctrines considered as equally heterodox, does not abash Mr. Foster in his defence of what he considers to be Scripture-truth. He seems rather to acquire firmness and vigour from this expulsion; consoling himself with believing that the discussions which he has provoked will be of essential service to the Society of Friends. On former occasions, we have ventured to express our concern at seeing a Christian community of the most amiable manners and most peaceable character embroiled in controversy, especially when no specific creed appears to have been drawn up relative to speculative doctrines; and when, in one of its yearly epistles, the Society declares "Love to God and love to our neighbour to be the grand and primary divisions of the Gospel." We are at a loss to reconcile the proceedings here recorded with that principle of sound discretion by which the Quakers have generally been guided. Supposing the

Society to have been in the greatest embarrassment, was it prudent to avow that 'the ground of the Meeting's judgment was not that Thomas Foster entertained scruples, doubts, and certain opinions, but *his injudicious proclamation of them*;' that, had he kept them to himself, or spoken of them *in proper places only*, and *at proper times*, he might have been a member of the Society to this day? The matter, then, seems to resolve itself into this simple question, whether truth, or what we deem such, may be spoken at all times? Feeling that, "though truth may be blamed it cannot be shamed," according to the old saying, Mr. F. resolves to *speak out*; and, notwithstanding his having been *turned out* for it, he will speak on. In short, he glories in being a strict Unitarian; and, if the system of Unitarianism be absolutely and unequivocally incompatible with Quakerism, it is clear that he cannot be a Quaker and an Unitarian at the same time: yet it is equally manifest, on the decision of the above-mentioned Meeting, convened for the purpose of expressly reporting on his case, that, Unitarian as he was, he might have remained an acknowleged Quaker had he held his peace. Liberty of conscience he is allowed, but *not liberty of tongue.* Poor Mr. Foster! yet we cannot pity thee, for thou seemest to take thy revenge in the most ample liberty of pen; and, if we may rely on what thou hast said, thou art making a most alarming re-action on the Society which has disowned thee, by having 'excited among the *Friends* an increased attention to the works circulated by the London Unitarian *Book* Society.' Where will all this end? The readers of the present Narrative will find much to assist them in answering this question: but the Society of Friends will not much approve its publication, nor be disposed perhaps to follow its advice.

Art. 27. *British Pulpit Eloquence:* a Selection of Sermons, in chronological Order, from the Works of the most eminent Divines of Great Britain, during the seventeenth and eighteenth Centuries; with biographical and critical Notices. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 470. Gale and Co. 1814.

Of the object and plan of this work, it is impossible not to approve, and we are happy to add that its execution is as creditable to the editor as the design. To many clergymen, this selection of discourses, placed in chronological order, will be very acceptable; and by those who do not possess numerous books of reference, the biographical and critical notices will be regarded as valuable additions. A comparison of the different styles of preaching may by such a collection be easily made; and it will enable the modern reader to see with what firmness and energy our old divines exposed vice and recommended virtue. Their language, indeed, is not always adapted to the present day: but their sermons are so full of matter, that we should advise our modern preachers to work on them as a *fond*, and, without losing an atom of the pure gold, to re-cast them. We entirely accord with the editor, when he observes, speaking of the work which he has prepared, that 'it can scarcely fail of inspiring candidates for the ministry with the laudable ambition of excelling in their high profession, or of pointing out to them the true road to distinction. For them it is particularly designed: and in consideration of the importance of this object,

object, the editor trusts that he shall be judged with candour by those readers to whom such a work is less necessary, especially as this is the first publication of its kind.'

If the editor found it a delicate and difficult point to decide where to begin and whom to select, we venture to say that few will be disposed to object to the choice which he has made. He commences with the venerable Hooker's *learned sermon on Pride;* (we know not why it is called *learned;*) next follow Chillingworth on *the Use of Riches;*—Jeremy Taylor (called the Father of the British Pulpit, and the Homer of Divines,) on the *Miracles of the Divine Mercy*, in three parts;—Henry More on *Pure Religion;*—Richard Allestree on the Christian's *shining before Men;*—B. Calamy on *Evil Thoughts;*—Isaac Barrow's long sermon (occupying full 100 pages*) on *the Duty and Reward of Bounty to the Poor;*—John Wilkins on *Hope of Reward a proper Christian Motive;*—and B. Whichcot on *the Difference of Times with respect to Religion.* Compared with modern discourses, these are certainly long; since nine, together with the biographical notices, prefixed to each, fill the present volume. Of the memoirs, which are ably compiled, and the occasional notes, the editor thus speaks in the preface:

'In drawing up the Memoirs, brevity has been carefully studied, but it has been judged necessary to enlarge them beyond a barren catalogue of dates. The materials for them have been derived from the best sources. Where the authors have sustained other characters besides that of divines, it was deemed proper to consider them principally in the relation in which they belong to this work. In the same point of view, a constant regard has been had to striking instances of pious sentiment and virtuous conduct. The Notes have been added sometimes to enliven the page, at others to explain the text, and generally to give information to the theological student on subjects within the circle of his profession.'

We hope that the editor will be encouraged to prosecute his undertaking.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 28. *An authentic Narrative of the Campaign of* 1815, comprising a circumstantial Detail of the Battle of Waterloo. By a Staff Officer in the French Army. 8vo. pp. 52. Colburn.

It is desirable, both for the gratification of curiosity and for the attainment of historical accuracy, to compare rival accounts of great events; and to this end we think that an examination of the present pamphlet may conduce, since it appears to be, as it pretends, the production of a person well informed of the events related. We believe that this is the account to which Mr. Walter Scott refers in the notes to his poem on Waterloo, mentioned in our Number for

* Dr. Barrow was famous for long sermons. The one here given was his Spital Sermon before the Lord Mayor, which took up three hours and a half in the delivery; and a story is told (perhaps a *story*) that he was once *played down* by the organ in the midst of a long sermon in Westminster-abbey.

Nov. p. 294.; and in that case we are surprized at his having denied to Napoleon the credit of having *mixed in the fray*, since this writer expressly says, (p. 32.) 'It was in vain that Bonaparte attempted to make a final effort by bringing into action some battalions of the guards which had not yet been employed; and which *he himself headed.*'

The general complexion of the account here given appears to us fair, as far as we can judge: but perhaps our officers would controvert many points of the relation. It speaks of the British army waiting the attack in its *entrenchments*; whereas Mr. Simpson, the traveller noticed in the ensuing article, positively says:

'Nothing is more false than the French apology, that the British position was naturally strong, and carefully fortified. *Unentrenched* stood the British army, along its whole position, on a slope so gentle, that a coach driving up would not slacken pace; and to the ridge of which the French cavalry found no difficulty of galloping at full speed to the very bayonets of their opponents, who threw themselves into squares, their only entrenchments, to receive them. It was, to use a favourite English phrase, just the place for "*a fair set to; a clear field and no favour.*"

Mr. Simpson also opposes the French *Relation* in other particulars.

Art. 29. *A Visit to Flanders*, in July 1815, being chiefly an Account of the Field of Waterloo. With a short Sketch of Antwerp and Brussels, at that Time occupied by the Wounded of both Armies. By James Simpson, Esq. 12mo. pp. 186. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

Not only '*chiefly*,' but almost entirely is this volume occupied with the interesting theme of the battle of Waterloo; and it contains a greater number of anecdotes altogether, the larger proportion of which are also new, (to us, at least,) than any publication that we have seen. We can recommend it, therefore, as calculated to gratify the curiosity of all those whose patriotic feelings are excited by such a spirit-stirring subject, or whose humane feelings will commiserate the sufferings attendant on one of the most sanguinary actions that was ever fought. Mr. Simpson is a North Briton; and his nationality is prominently conspicuous, whenever he speaks of the Highland troops, who composed part of the British army: but, if he should be charged with overstepping the modesty of nature in this respect, his readers will be little disposed to accuse him of exceeding the bounds of truth, since the heroism and exemplary conduct of our northern brethren are universally acknowleged.

We might be tempted to make numerous selections from the relations here brought forwards: but we must set bounds to our inclination, and adduce merely a few specimens.

'The first three attacks, we were told, might serve as a fair specimen of the reiterated war during the entire day. From eleven in the morning till seven at night, it consisted of a succession of such attacks, with unabated fury, and increasing force; and often with a boldness and deadly effect, which perplexed our soldiers, and put their matchless firmness to the utmost trial. It may be believed, that

that every fresh onset swept away multitudes of our infantry; still the survivors gave not an inch of the ground, but made good the lines and firm the squares. No men in Europe could have endured as they did: again and again the enemy's cannon and cavalry rebounded as it were from their "adamantine front," dismayed and scattered. These were the *breathing* times of our heroes! Line was with admirable alacrity formed for a greater breadth of fire than the squares afforded, immediately on seeing the *back* plates of the cuirasses, when masses of French infantry approached with a heavy fire of musketry. They did "go through their work," as Napoleon often muttered, like no troops *he* had ever seen. Such were the deadly visits of the cannon and cavalry, that, as I have repeatedly been assured by officers with whom I have conversed, these interludes of infantry battle were a kind of *refreshment*, after their toil with the other arms! They never took the trouble to look at their numbers; they felt as if boys had attacked them, just to keep them in wind; and invariably routed them by a very few steps of a run in advance with pointed bayonets. The Duke, in visiting different points, was almost invariably received with a shout of impatience to be led on. The gallant 95th were very tired of the iron cases, and the iron grape shot. An immense body of French infantry happened to approach that noble regiment at one time when Lord Wellington was paying them a visit. "Let us at 'em, my Lord," "let us down upon 'em," quite regardless of their numbers. "Not yet," replied the chief, "not yet, my brave men, but you shall have at them soon; firm a little longer; we *must not* be beat; what would they say in England?" '—

'No part of the field was more fertile in impressive associations, than the ground of the 30th, and I believe the 73d regiments, brigaded under our gallant countryman, severely wounded in the battle, Sir Colin Halket. I had already heard much of the firmness of these brave troops; and was to hear still more. To no square did the artillery, and particularly the cuirassiers, pay more frequent and tremendous visits; and never were they shaken for a moment.

'Their almost *intimacy* with these death-bringing visitants, encreased so much as the day advanced, that they began to recognise their faces. Their boldness much provoked the soldiers. They galloped up to the bayonet points, where of course their horses made a full stop, to the great danger of pitching their riders into the square. They then rode round and round the fearless bulwark of bayonets; and in all the confidence of panoply, often coolly *walked* their horses, to have more time to search for some hole in the ranks, where they might ride in. The balls absolutely rung upon their mail; and nothing incommoded the rider, except bringing down his horse, which at last became the general order.' —

'The cuirassiers were repeatedly driven off by the 30th, and their sister regiment; reduced themselves by painful degrees, more and more every attack. Line was always again formed with unwearied alacrity; no complaint escaped the patient soldiers' lips, if we except an occasional cry to be led on. The storm was seen again gathering and rolling on. The serious command, "*re*-form square, prepare to receive

receive cavalry," was promptly and accurately obeyed. The whole were prostrate on their breasts, to let the iron shower of artillery fly over, and erect in an instant when the artillery ceased and the cavalry charged. Their country do not know one-tenth of the merit of "The men of Waterloo."

'Unable to break in upon the square by open force, a commanding officer of cuirassiers tried a *ruse de guerre;* he lowered his sword to General Halket; several of the officers called out "Sir, they surrender."—"Be firm and fire," was the promptly obeyed answer. The General justly suspected an offer of surrender to a body of infantry, fixed to the spot in a defensive position, by a body of cavalry, who had the option of galloping off, with all the plain open behind them. The volley sent the colonel and his cuirassiers, as usual, about, with a laugh of derision from the men he had meant to cut in pieces; and many a ring from their balls, upon the back pieces of the mails.

'This gallant brigade was honoured with several visits from the illustrious chief. In one he enquired "how they were." The answer was that two thirds of their number were down, and that the rest were so exhausted, that leave to retire, even for a short time, was most desirable; some of the foreign corps, who had not suffered, to take their place. General H. was told that the issue depended on the steady unflinching front of the British troops; and that even a change of place was hazardous in the extreme. He impressively said, "Enough, my Lord, we stand here till the last man falls."

An interesting story of the lady of an Irish officer precedes the military details, but is too long for quotation. The flight of the Prussians to Brussels, after the battle of Charleroi, is reported greatly to their discredit; and the *prudent* conduct of a nameless regiment of foreign Light Horse Volunteers, at Waterloo, is made almost too ludicrous a story for such an occasion.

An apparently good plan of the field of Waterloo illustrates this attractive detail.

Art. 30. *The Weekly Monitor:* a Series of Essays on Moral and Religious Subjects. By a Layman. 12mo. pp. 170. Printed in America, and reprinted in London for W. Phillips.

We have been on the whole well pleased with this little volume, which consists of a collection of essays originally published in the Charleston Courier; and the author having been obliged to relinquish the farther publication of them, the editors of the above journal were requested by his friends to reprint them in a more durable shape. We cannot indeed say that we have met with any thing peculiarly novel, any very forcible mode of reasoning, or any important argument, which has not been discussed again and again by abler pens: but the subjects are well chosen, the language is manly and spirited, the morality is pure, the doctrines are sound, and the quotations from Scripture are just and apposite.—The various arguments for the immortality of the soul, and the necessity of a future retribution, in order to clear up the mysterious disorder and miseries of our present state of being, are treated, not with whining mawkish cant, but in a manly, calm, and dispassionate spirit of rational investigation. In the discussion of that most interesting

teresting question whether the social affections, and those natural ties which have been formed on earth only to be torn asunder, will after death be renewed in a state of perfection and felicity, the arguments of the author exhibit the modesty and diffidence which should always accompany our speculations on futurity. The delightful expectation may be entertained as probable, since Revelation does not deny it: but it cannot be regarded as certain or demonstrable, since Revelation does not enforce its truth. — Throughout the whole of the volume, are interspersed quotations from the most celebrated works of our modern divines. It is this, indeed, which in one sense appears to us the most exceptionable part of the performance, since the frequency and the prolixity of these extracts give it the appearance of a piece of patch-work, rather than an original production. The quotations are also taken from writings which are in every man's hand, such as those of Porteus, Horne, and Knox, rather than from the rarer treasures of divines of an earlier date, if not of more enlarged and enlightened minds.

Art. 31. *Village Conversations;* or, The Vicar's Fire-side. 12mo. pp. 227. 6s. 6d. Boards. Chapple. 1815.

The lady, from whose pen this little volume proceeds, does not offer it as containing 'specimens of composition or examples of conversational eloquence:' but, desirous of promoting the benefit of the rising generation, she has endeavoured to establish sound moral principles in the mind, and to demonstrate the importance of virtuous conduct to well-being. We would not be so ungalant as to intimate that this lady is not deeply read in ethical and metaphysical science: but we shall hope for her forgiveness if we remark that some of the subjects, here selected for discussion at the vicar's fire-side, are above the capacity of youth; and that it is a little out of nature to institute dialogues between young men and maidens on that most perplexing of questions, *The Origin of Evil.* The whole, however, is written with the best intention, and manifests a mind of no ordinary reflection: though the conversations have a too uniform gravity, altogether unrelieved by ingredients of an opposite quality that are calculated to attract juvenile readers.

Has this female writer a correct notion of philology, when she asserts at p. 129. that 'ideas authorized by nature' is perhaps an expression not strictly philological?

Some errors of the press are marked, but not the error at p. 67. Pythia for *Pythias.*

Art. 32. *Second Report of the London Society for the Improvement and Encouragement of Female Servants,* instituted 1813. 8vo. 6d. Hatchard. 1815.

The first of these Reports has either not fallen in our way, or has been accidentally overlooked. The design of the Society is so very laudable, that we should be happy by our recommendation to extend its influence: for we can scarcely enter any family without hearing complaints of the misconduct of female servants. The object of this Society is to remedy this evil.

'The Society is formed to promote the moral and religious improvement of servants — to encourage them to be correct and trustworthy

worthy in their conduct, and to abide as long as possible in the same service. By these means to promote mutual good will and friendship between servants and their employers. Various rewards are proposed for long continued service in the same family.'

A registry of servants is instituted by the Society, concerning which this report is given:

'Respecting the business transacted at the registry from April 1814 to the end of March 1815, the committee have to report,—That 1070 servants, who have lived from 2 to upwards of 20 years in former services respectively, or who had never been in service, have requested that their names might be inserted in the registry, as wanting situations. Of these 277 have been engaged in various services through the medium of the registry: but it is presumed that this is very far short of the true number; as ladies and servants have not been so particular, as might be wished, in giving information when they have been suited. The remainder have obtained situations through other means.

'It may be proper here to say, that the registry is to be considered both by subscribers and servants, as nothing more than a medium of communication between the parties; as it must be obvious, that it would be impossible for any committee, or any individual employed by them, to ascertain and define with tolerable precision the moral characters of those who may apply, either for servants, or for services.'

From this passage, the mind of the reader will obtain some light as to the operation of the plan here explained.

Art. 33. *Some Facts relative to the China Trade;* shewing its Importance to this Country, and the Inexpediency of its remaining exclusively in the Hands of the East India Company. 8vo. pp. 44. Underwood and Black. 1813.

Though the question discussed in this little tract has been some time decided, it is not the less deserving of attention, because a period will no doubt come in which Government will be disposed to act with regard to the China trade as they have done with respect to India. The writer of the pages before us is a decided opponent of monopoly; and he shews clearly, from the example of the Americans, that we might carry on trade with China with just as much safety, and with much more profit, were we to lay it open to the activity of private competition. Of the ships employed by our East-India Company in this, which is now their only exclusive branch of trade, the number is between fourteen and fifteen, of the average size of 1400 tons. The captains and officers derive their chief emolument from the privilege of occupying a certain share of the tonnage free of freight, and, for several years past, the advantage thus accruing to them has been about 60l. sterling per ton: while, according to this writer's estimate, the profit of the trade to the Company has amounted to fully two millions sterling per annum; a sum sufficient to enable them to pay a dividend of ten per cent. on the six millions which constitute the amount of their capital stock, and which, with the aid of an occasional million or two as a loan from Government, provides a fund for the discharge of the interest on their forty millions of

of debt. In this writer's opinion, the mercantile advantage to the public from the China trade, were it laid open, would be nearly as great as it at present is to the Company, in consequence of a great reduction in the rate of freight, private ships being navigated at less expence than the stately vessels which are now employed; — and a farther benefit would accrue to the country from doing the business in a more economical form, viz. either in having tea considerably cheaper, or in deriving an additional revenue if it were prudent to augment the duty.

After these preliminary observations, the author proceeds (pp. 11, 12, 13.) to give an account of Canton, and the manner of transacting business at that port:

'Strangers are not permitted to enter the gates, but they have the whole range of the suburbs, which lie chiefly towards the bank of the river, and are more extensive, and far more populous than the city itself. Here all the great merchants, as well as the smaller dealers, have their store and counting-houses; and consequently there is no real inconvenience to strangers in their exclusion from the city. The European factories are situated on a spacious quay, extending a considerable length along the bank of the river. They consist of a range of elegant buildings, from each of which a court, containing warehouses, yards, and dwelling-houses extends backwards a considerable length. Each factory has the flag of the nation to which it pertains hoisted before its gate. The ponderous and magnificent front of the British factory renders it particularly conspicuous. In it the agents or supercargoes of the East India Company reside during the season of business; and when the fleet sails for England, they go down to the Portuguese settlement of Macao, to pass the summer. The splendour of their table, which is maintained at the Company's expence, is proverbial in the Eastern world.'

The remainder of the tract is appropriated to an account of a political blunder, of no small importance, committed by our Admiral in India in 1808, on the mistaken information given by the Company's agents at Canton. The small settlement of Macao, on the coast of China, has long been possessed by the Portuguese, on a grant from the Chinese government, revocable at will. In 1808, Portugal having been invaded by the French, her colonies in the East were consigned for a time to the hands of the British government; and the Company's agents regarded this as a very favourable opportunity to obtain military possession of Macao. No sooner, however, was the British flag hoisted there, than the Chinese governor of Canton declared it to be an act of hostility, and prohibited all commercial intercourse with the British until our force should be withdrawn. It was a serious error on our part to give the provocation in the first instance, and a still greater to persist in it: yet our Admiral, urged no doubt by his mercantile advisers, continued to occupy the settlement, and even made his ships of war advance in a threatening attitude to Canton: while the Chinese, not chusing to be forced into a concession which they conceived to be calculated to lessen the security of the trade to other nations, returned our menaces by assembling junks,

junks, and establishing land-batteries. Three months were passed in this unprofitable contest, our merchantmen remaining all this time undischarged; until a final menace having proved unavailing, the Admiral, who had the good sense to avoid any act of direct hostility, withdrew his force, and left the mercantile gentlemen to give up the point to the Chinese with the best grace in their power. The latter declared themselves satisfied with the evacuation of Macao, and matters resumed their accustomed course. — The conclusion drawn by this writer from the circumstance in question is not only that our conduct was highly imprudent on that occasion, but that, speaking generally, less hazard of giving offence to the Chinese would be incurred if we had no officers there but consuls, who, like the Americans, would abstain from assuming a tone of consequence, than with the present dignified representatives of our Company in the port of Canton.

CORRESPONDENCE.

If *N. N.* did not think that it was worth his while to pay the postage of his letter to obtain an answer to his inquiry, it would have been fairer to repress his curiosity than to put us to that expence; and now that we have paid it, we must tell him that a much larger sum given to us would not tempt us to make the search which he proposes.

A '*Constant Reader*,' with more gentility, makes the same inquiry, whether the lines "He who fights and runs away," &c. are really to be found in Hudibras: but, seriously, we cannot undertake to decide this point. We quoted them with the common assignment of them to that work, and have not leisure to ascertain the fact.

Another 'Constant Reader' is in error when he supposes that we have deviated from our 'usual impartiality;' the *Velvet Cushion* having been reviewed so long since as in our Number for Dec. 1814.

We admit the reasonableness of *A. B.*'s wish that we would always give translations of passages in Greek and Latin, or other foreign languages, which are quoted in our pages: but this is not practicable. It *is* our almost invariable rule to translate the extracts from modern French or German publications which we give in our accounts of them.

Mr. Haynes's publications were reviewed in our Number for February 1814.

Mr. Polwhele's polite note is received; and we are sorry that our account of his poem, in the last Review, which he had not then seen, will perhaps not be so satisfactory to him as he, and we also, could wish it to have been.

The volume from B. is received.

*** The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published on the first of February, with the Number for January.

THE

APPENDIX

TO THE

SEVENTY-EIGHTH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Exposé Comparatif*, &c.; *i. e.* A comparative View of the Financial, Military, Political, and Moral Situation of France, and of the principal Powers of Europe. By M. le Baron BIGNON, formerly Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from France to Cassel, Carlsruhe, and Warsaw. 8vo. pp. 518. Paris. December, 1814.

AMONG all the books on political topics which we have seen issue from the French press for some time past, the present volume deserves to be ranked as one of the best; and indeed it possesses a character of sedate and deliberate reasoning, which we do not often encounter in the writings of our versatile neighbours. The author, without occupying a conspicuous place in the list of French diplomatists, must evidently have laboured assiduously in former years to qualify himself for the discharge of his official duties, and he has moreover spared no pains to collect information for the composition of the work before us. It does not appear to have been dictated by any particular desire in M. BIGNON to recommend himself to the notice of the Bourbon government, since he makes (pp. 135. 360. 365.) no secret of his entertaining sentiments very different from those which are supposed to pave the way to court-patronage. He probably owed his rise to the opening afforded by the Revolution for the advancement of men of talents from the *Tiers Etat*; and, in dwelling on that great political convul-

sion, he discovers very little of the regret, or rather the horror, which the mere mention of the name suggests to so many of our countrymen: but it would be doing him great injustice to infer that he was either insensible to the excesses of the Jacobins or attached to the person of *Bonaparte*. Many individuals in France, who cling with predilection to the remembrance of the revolutionary contest, were severe sufferers by these base abusers of the well-meant efforts of the nation. Under the Jacobins, they saw their relatives and best friends cut off by the Guillotine; while under *Bonaparté* the advocates of liberty were spurned, and the public resources wasted in schemes of personal aggrandizement.

Were our countrymen to pay attention to these distinctions of character and situation, many of them would be induced to think very differently of the present state of France; and they would see that the Bourbons, so far from weakening their cause by measures of lenity, would find, in such men as the Baron BIGNON, servants as faithful and as zealous as those who profess most loudly their attachment to the established dynasty. The general wish in France is for the maintenance of peace, for the preservation of the share of power given to the people by the Constitutional Charter, and for an oblivion of past struggles, in the hope that the Bourbons will continue to govern with moderation and impartiality. Such began to be the state of things during the last winter, when the sudden appearance of *Bonaparte* shook the obedience of the soldiers, and by the event surprized the French nation as much as the rest of Europe. It is a curious fact, and one which cannot be too strongly impressed on those who believe in a secret correspondence between Paris and the island of Elba, that the majority of the former adherents of *Bonaparte* regarded him, during the fortnight in which his invasion threatened France with a civil war, as an incendiary and traitor; a fact which we know from the report of many persons resident on the spot. If we wonder at the subsequent acquiescence of the nation, we shall do well to recollect that the re-establishment of the Bourbons in 1814 was a very sudden and unexpected event; that a great part of the existing generation had never known them; that another part had forgotten them; and that a third and powerful body occupied situations civil and military, which they apprehended they should be obliged to relinquish. In so great a change, a considerable time unavoidably elapses before individuals recover from their surprize, or deem themselves safe under the sway of their new governors: but this uneasy feeling is now beginning to subside, and to be succeeded by a disposition very natural to a Frenchman, that of personal attachment to the King.

M. BIG-

M. BIGNON divides his work into four parts: 1. The financial Condition of France and the four great Powers, England, Austria, Russia, and Prussia. — 2. The military Condition of these Powers. — 3. Their political Condition, with Observations of the same Nature on the other States, viz. Spain, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Turkey, and America. — 4. The moral Condition of these Countries, meaning the Degree of internal Tranquility enjoyed by each; the Prospect of domestic Concord; the popular Feeling with regard to the Nobility, Clergy, and Executive Power, &c.

I. *Finance.* — The scope of the author's reasoning with respect to finance, as well as other topics, is to prevent a spirit of discouragement from spreading among his countrymen:

'The financial embarrassments of France, however serious, would press,' he says, 'less heavily on the minds of the people, did not our history admonish us that such conjunctures have almost always been followed by a public bankruptcy. The shame of these results, however, is due to our governments, since few countries possess more amply the means of balancing their expenditure by their revenue. In former days, the broad and direct principles, on which financial administration ought to rest, were little understood; and a minister conceived his chief talent to lie in concealing for a time the extent of the embarrassment, in contriving temporary palliatives, and in fixing on the moment at which the public faith might be broken, with the least danger to the executive power. Such a course was the natural consequence of an absolute government; it was unavoidable in France until the time should come, (as come it has at last,) when the crown and the people would establish a constitutional government in which the votes of taxation are sanctioned by public discussion, by a clear exhibition of accounts, and by the responsibility of ministers. Considerable progress towards this most desirable state of things was made in the ministry of M. *Neckar*, who had the good sense to consider the publicity of financial operations as the means of associating the people with the government. It tended, he said, to afford a confirmation of every measure that was judicious, while it facilitated the detection of every thing that might prove impolitic or injurious.

'The national debt of France, on the return of the King in May 1814, was thus calculated:

	Sterling.	*Interest.*
'Funded debt about -	£84,000,000	£4,200,000
Unfunded, or more properly debt payable on demand, -	32,000,000	
The interest on which, from the inability of government to pay or to fund without bringing down the stocks, ought not to be computed at less than 8 per cent., about -	— —	2,500,000
Due to individuals in office, and others, for the interest of deposits made on coming into their situations, -	7,000,000	350,000

'Large as these sums appear, they are inferior to the amount of the national debt incurred in the reign of Louis XIV. On the death of that monarch in 1715, the funded debt was nearly equal to the present amount; the unfunded, fully equal; and the value of money, or in other words the real amount of the responsibility of government to individuals, was much greater than at the present day. A still more consolatory consideration is the difference in the relative revenues: — that of France in 1715 scarcely exceeding 7,000,000l. sterling, while at present it is nearly four times as much. All the reductions accomplished by the well known Board of Retrenchment, established under the Duke of Orleans, did not bring the public debt below a hundred millions sterling, at which it continued in 1733. Still there would have been no necessity for resorting to the lamentable expedient of breach of promise to the public creditor, had France desisted from interfering in the affairs of Germany, and had followed up the wise and moderate course recommended by Cardinal *Fleury*. At this moment, she has reason to hope for an adherence to a pacific course, not only from the lessons of recent experience, but from the more accurate views now entertained respecting national resources, and the ascertained policy of an adherence to good faith. Let us hope that our countrymen are at last become sensible of the folly of carrying every thing to an extreme. The success of the first operations of the well known *Law* shewed with what ease the credit necessary to the maintenance of the banking system might be established in France: while the extravagant abuse of it proved, on the other hand, the length to which a credulous people may be carried by an adventurous government. To guard us from a recurrence of such extremes, we have now the security of a representative government, which may not improperly be called a guarantee to the king against the faults of his ministers.

'Let us now attempt a parallel in the financial situation of France and England. The latter country offers us the extraordinary spectacle of a nation maintaining its credit after twenty years of unprecedented expenditure. What a difference between this island and its neighbours on the Continent! Frederick II., absolute as he was, did not venture to begin a war without a provision in his treasury for two campaigns; and the sovereigns of the present day, who have neglected this precaution, have not been long in arriving at the end of their exertions. England alone seems to have before her an almost boundless horizon,—a store of which the productive powers regularly replace the waste. We on the Continent, judging of this surprising fabric from a distance, are inclined to attribute a great share of its permanency to the operation of a sinking fund: but the efficacy of this expedient has lately been much questioned; and the attention of the public has been fixed, by political economists, on the well-directed industry of the people as the basis of these extraordinary exertions. As to the amount of the debt at the present day, we shall probably not be far short of the truth in calculating the total at 700,000,000l. sterling, and the annual interest about 32,000,000.' *

* See Mr. Colquhoun's statements on this head, in the first article of our Number for December 1815. *Rev.*

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The Baron proceeds to extend his parallel to the prospective condition of each country, and to console the French with having to pay taxes to the amount of only 26 or 27,000,000l., while those of England must be nearly double. Here, as in other parts of the treatise, we discover an enlightened mind, and an evident desire to be impartial, as well as to fix the hopes of his countrymen not on schemes of future aggrandizement, but on a steady adherence to a pacific course. Yet, on the subjects of finance and political economy, the author displays no more knowlege than we generally find in men who, though possessed of respectable talents, have given their chief attention to different topics. His professional line was diplomacy; with which, and with the military calculations suggested by the events of late years, he is of course most familiar. To form a comparative estimate of the financial prospects of England and France requires a wide range of inquiry and consideration: it is not to be made on a survey of a few years, or on a reference to the character of the individuals placed for a time at the head of either government; it requires an attentive examination of the permanent resources of the respective countries.

Although the debt of England is nominally triple that of France, even taking into the account the burdens imposed on the latter by the second treaty of Paris, yet its actual amount, in a comparative view, becomes much reduced when we consider the difference of the value of money in the two countries. Still a very serious balance remains against us; which is ascribable in a great measure to the unfortunate policy that dictated the Orders in Council, and placed us during five years on so disadvantageous a footing with regard to our exertions on the Continent. — If from a comparison of financial statements we turn our attention to the wider field of national industry, we find France possessing a milder climate, a better soil, and more numerous population, but England richer in capital, more judicious in its application, and more persevering in all the various objects of her labours. We must add also the incalculable advantages arising from a settled constitution, the habit of enjoying freedom without abusing it, and the power of exposing the errors of the executive government without hazarding a general convulsion; — together with our more rapidly increasing population, and the wide field for improvement in so fertile and hitherto so neglected a country as Ireland. In all these considerations, we shall find good grounds for arriving at the conclusion that our national power is, *even without the co-operation of allies*, very nearly equal to that of our long dreaded rival. In making this parallel, we purposely refrain from enlarging

larging on the superiority of our navy, on the divided state of the French nation, or on any point which appears to bear a temporary character; wishing to direct the attention altogether to permanent points.—What a difference is exhibited between the relative power of the two countries at present and under Louis XIV.! France then fought long and obstinately for the superiority at sea, withstood all the efforts of the continental confederates, and ended by attaining her grand object, the acquisition of the crown of Spain for a prince of her family:—Russia, now the pillar of the continental balance, was in those days little known, or at least incapable of sending her armies to a distance from her frontier:—while Prussia, the ready ally of England, a power which our subsidies can now call so promptly into action, possessed then only a secondary rank, and was not greater than Bavaria is now.

The conclusions to be drawn from these observations point, like those of M. BIGNON respecting France, not to the expediency of resuming hostilities on a slight provocation, but to the safety and security of a state of peace. The whole tenor of late events is calculated to shew the folly of France, or any one power, pretending to rule over the Continent: while it evinces likewise the impolicy of carrying the efforts of a state beyond its proper limits, and seeking to annex to it territories unconnected with its natural boundaries. Under these circumstances, the well-wisher of mankind is justified in hoping for the long enjoyment of peace by the civilized part of the world;—and never was it more necessary for the redemption of financial embarrassment, or to stop that rapid depreciation of money which has escaped the observation of M. BIGNON, but which was one of the most fatal attendants of our annual expenditure of 100,000,000l. The prompt diminution of our naval establishment is indicative of a solicitude on the part of ministers to avoid unnecessary expence, and affords a hope that we may ere long see a correspondent (though not an equal) reduction in our army. This will be the most effectual means of meeting our financial difficulties, and of enabling Government to take off the more oppressive taxes without shaking the public credit: while the productive industry of the British is so great, and the operation of our capital and of our constancy in pursuit becomes in time so beneficial, that we may be justified in anticipating in every year of peace a progressive, if not a large, increase of revenue from most of our taxes. Our exports will be augmented, whether we look to countries such as Holland, Germany, France, and the Baltic, where profits are small but returns are certain; or to the more adventurous field opened to us in the United States. The attention of our country-

countrymen will, it is to be hoped, be fixed on those regions, on Ireland, on our fisheries, and on interior improvements, in preference to the fallacious prospect held out by Spanish America, or by the acquisition of large tracts of territory in India.

Highly, however, as we estimate the success likely to be attendant on our national industry, a number of years must elapse before it does more than repair the sacrifices of the late wars. The unprecedented augmentation of our taxes has had the effect of raising the price of labour, to a point which has placed us in a very disadvantageous position relatively to the rest of Europe. The late travels of our countrymen in France, Germany, and the north, must have satisfied them that it was high time to suspend farther pressure on the British public; and to watch against forcing our commodities to a price that must tend to exclude us from foreign markets. The manufacturer, unable to exist without his accustomed vent, has too frequently sought the means of keeping it open by deteriorating his products; — and hence the slightness of our silks, of our cloths, and even of our linen manufactures, which has been too much the ground of complaint on the Continent. Nothing would more effectually shut the door against us in foreign markets than persisting in this pernicious alternative; and even the Americans, who now begin to possess disposable capital, would find the means of buying from the French, (short as are the credits of the latter,) were we to proceed on a plan which must eventually render our goods unserviceable to them. This would soon be exemplified in the staple article of broad cloth; the duration of which may, we understand, be computed to be one-third longer in a French than in a British article. Fortunately, the case is not equally to our disadvantage with respect to cotton-goods, and still less in point of hard-ware; our treasures of coal and iron-ore enabling us to contend with success against the cheaper labour of the Continent.

These views of our situation in a commercial sense are not a little different from the opinion of the present author; who seems to have imbibed the doctrine that the late wars have poured incalculable wealth into England. Indeed, a general belief prevails on the Continent that our naval superiority gave us, during the contest, the exclusive possession of the commerce of the world; and it must be confessed that this curious notion was not unfrequent among ourselves, till the bankruptcies of the last five years taught us a practical lesson of the difference between success in war and success in trade. Though, however, *we* now see the error, we should find it very difficult to convince our continental neighbours that such

a difference exists, or that England did not make war for the sake of commercial monopoly. The French, in particular, are under no little alarm lest we become disposed to an early rupture, for the sake of recovering that which peace, they think, must have taken away.

'Did not the prosperity of England' (asks M. BIGNON, p. 57.) 'arise in a great measure from the exclusive possession of the commerce of the world during the last two wars? A time is now come in which the enjoyment of peace affords to other countries a chance of participating in the benefits of trade; and are we justified in hoping that the British will quietly submit to an infringement on their superiority? May we not apprehend a new rupture from this cause?'

Bonaparte found means, like his revolutionary predecessors, to persuade the French that all the evils which they suffered were the work of England; and though our countrymen individually are at this moment respected throughout France, and the discipline of our troops is stated in terms of high commendation, almost every one is persuaded that the hard conditions of the treaties both of 1814 and 1815 are ascribable to our ministry.

'All the mischief,' (says the Baron) 'which the most inveterate enemy could bring down on her opponent, has been inflicted by England on France. Our immense sacrifices will not be soon forgotten; and it was England which prescribed them and now contemplates their enforcement with delight. She would be farther gratified were we by any rash attempt to lead the allies to press still more heavily on us; and persons are not wanting who conceive that such a project enters into her calculations.'

Strange as these suspicions appear to the English reader, we find, on turning over these pages, (pp. 145. 164. 173. 182.) repeated proofs that even this enlightened and temperate observer has allowed himself to entertain notions of the kind; and it is to their influence that we are to ascribe any disappointments experienced by those of our travelling countrymen who complain of a falling off in the accustomed politeness of the French:—a disappointment, however, which will be lessened every year, as the people find themselves left in the enjoyment of peace and tranquillity.

It is now time to advert to M. BIGNON'S remarks on the financial condition of the other great powers. In treating of that of Austria, he notices the importance of taking into the account the sums retained for local purposes by provincial administrations. In England and France, on the other hand, the rule is to pay almost all the receipts into the public treasury, and to draw a part of the local disbursements from the same source.

The author gives a statement of the progress of the national debt of Austria, and enters at some length into her financial system: but, as he adds little to the statements which our readers will obtain from our copious report of M. *Serres*'s work, in the immediately succeeding article, we prefer to follow his investigations into other topics.

'*Prussia.*—The power of this country, though comparatively recent, goes farther back than the public in general imagine. In the seventeenth century, the Elector of Brandenburg was so much stronger than his brethren in the Diet as to pass by the name of the Great Elector, and to be justified in assuming the title of King. The father of Frederic II. possessed nearly a hundred years ago a revenue of about 2,000,000l. sterling, and found means to leave, in 1740, both a replenished treasury and a highly disciplined army of 70,000 men. These were greatly augmented in the long reign of his son, who was said to apportion thus his disposable revenue:

'Army - - -	£2,500,000
Expence of the court - -	200,000
Annual saving - -	400,000

'He had likewise other funds, each of which had its respective appropriation, such as the construction of villages, the repair of public edifices, or the settlement of uncultivated tracts of land. At his death in 1786, Frederick is understood to have left an accumulated treasure of 7,000,000l. sterling, with several additional provinces, and a population nearly doubled in his hereditary states. His successor squandered his treasures, but obtained an apparent increase of power by the acquisition of a part of Poland. The prosperity of Prussia, however, was now destined to undergo a sad reverse; her sufferings from the year 1806 to 1813 having exceeded those of any other country in Europe. The enormous contributions imposed by *Bonaparte*, the havoc made by the passage of armies, the stoppage of trade, and the discouragement prevalent in every rank, all concurred to weigh down this lately envied country. The consequence of this oppression, and of the surprising efforts made in 1813 and 1814, has been among other things the creation of a national debt, the amount of which does not easily admit of calculation, but is probably above 40,000,000l. To a country of limited commerce, and possessed, after all her late acquisitions, of a revenue of only six or 7,000,000l., such a sum is serious; but, large as it may be, it would soon be found to bear lightly on the people, could the government be persuaded of the policy of reducing its overgrown military establishment.'

All information with regard to the finances of *Russia* is as yet extremely limited, and we are even doubtful whether the Russian government itself possesses the means of taking a clear and accurate view of them. Indeed, in an empire sunken in ignorance, composed of so many different nations, conducting the receipt of its taxes in so irregular a way, and taking payments frequently in commodities instead of money, it would be

be no very easy matter to arrive at just conclusions. In 1790, it was computed that the Russian revenue was 10,000,000l. sterling; an amount evidently below the present receipts, which have been carried, by German calculators, to sixteen or 18,000,000l. The difficulty of making an estimate is much increased by the depreciation of the paper-money; which, like the currency of Austria, stands greatly in need of a radical reform. In no country is the government more frequently embarrassed for small sums than in Russia. In 1807, about the time of the battle of Eylau, the King of Prussia was obliged to supply his Imperial brother with the last remnant of the funds of the bank of Berlin that were carried off on the approach of *Bonaparte;* and Lord Hutchinson is said to have found it necessary to bring his private property in aid of the same cause. The statistical inquirer must therefore be satisfied to give up calculation respecting the Russian finances, and dismiss the subject with some general remarks on the magnitude to which this power may attain in the event of a consolidation of its multifarious tribes, and the general dissemination of habits of industry.

II. Our attention must now be turned to that part of M. BIGNON's work which treats of the comparative state of the military force of the different powers of Europe. His observations, being composed about twelve months ago, discover a tone of confidence unsuitable to the present juncture, but founded, in the main, on such solid and judicious arguments as to claim the approbation of the deliberate inquirer. The superiority so evident in the French revolutionary armies is here ascribed not to national or individual qualities, but to the natural operation of that liberal system which opened the path of promotion to the humblest ranks:

'The privilege which all possessed of aspiring to promotion, and the frequent occurrence of the advancement of privates to the rank of officers, gave the soldiers a spirit and an impulse which nothing else could have produced, and led also, in progress of time, to the formation of a body of officers unequalled, as a whole, in any army in Europe. By claiming this distinction for my countrymen, I have not the vanity to attribute it to our personal merit; I adduce it merely as a natural consequence of the system followed in granting commissions. Paris has been fated to see within her walls the finest regiments of the armies of Europe: but, much as we might admire them in various respects, we could evidently perceive a distance, and a want of that co-operation, (I might almost say *congeniality*,) between the officer and the soldier, which forms so pleasant a characteristic of the French troops.

'Of all military establishments, the Russian is most inadequately provided with officers, not merely Generals and Colonels, but Captains

and subalterns. This deficiency, caused chiefly by their backward state of civilization, is aggravated by the want of respect attached to an inferior military rank; officers in such stations having, with the exception of the Imperial Guard, no hope of attaining promotion even to the rank of colonel: in fact, their ignorance disqualifies them for it. Austria may justly boast of intelligent and respectable officers in her cavalry, but her infantry is very differently circumstanced. The cavalry is the object of ambition with all young men of family, and the branch from which they proceed to take appointments in the army at large. The consequence is that a commission for the infantry is an object only with those who serve for a livelihood; and, as public opinion attaches comparatively little consequence to the station, we must not expect to find, among individuals invested with it, that energy which they would not fail to display were it likely to become instrumental to their promotion.

'The Prussian army, however, stands on a very different footing. In that country, respectability is attached to one service as well as to another; and, as fashion has given the military an unusual share of importance, a portion of it may be said to be enjoyed even by the humblest officers. A sub-lieutenant or an ensign does not readily yield precedence to a titled functionary in a civil employment; a disposition existing not only in the time of Frederic II., but owing its origin to his father, to whom in fact we are to look for the foundation of that power of which the world became aware only in the wars of 1742 and 1756. Of the three great continental powers whose troops have appeared in France, Prussia is evidently the one that possesses officers most similar to the French; and after all that we have suffered from them, we cannot help admiring that spirit which led them to make such amazing efforts to wipe off the disgrace of the field of Jena.

'The British troops had, in a manner, ceased to figure in the list of European armies, the navy having long been the main object of the attention of that government, so that the military profession was not until lately in great repute in England; and the practice of attaining commissions by purchase necessarily filled the regiments with a number of raw and inexperienced officers. It hence became a preliminary task with an English commander to train his officers, like his men, before he entered on decisive operations. This was the case in the first campaigns of Marlborough, who had much to do before he succeeded in forming his officers, and adapting them to their respective situations. In the war of the Revolution, the operations of the British, whether we look to Flanders in 1793 and 1794, or to Holland in 1799, were far from successful: but Egypt in 1801, and still more Spain of late years, exhibited a very different result. The French attributed these recent successes chiefly to the superior resources of the British: but it is not to be doubted that their officers have acted with a degree of intelligence proportioned to the intrepidity of the troops. My countrymen have reaped too large a harvest of renown, to find it necessary to deduct from the share apparently due to other nations. Let them not, therefore, refuse to the British their full portion of glory; the long continuance of hostilities having had

had the effect of giving them skilful leaders as well as a valiant soldiery.

'But all these advantages on the part of our opponents will be far from accomplishing the subjugation of France, or even reducing her to inferiority, while we remain faithful to our plan of keeping the road to promotion open to the humbler ranks. If we persevere in that system, we shall find that the French soldier stands in need of no other excitement. Boldness in attack, patience under suffering, attachment to his leader, and enthusiasm for his sovereign, are all inherent in his character. He submits quietly to changes of climate, ventures cheerfully into unknown lands, and finds in his activity, ingenuity, and contented disposition, a resource under the most discouraging circumstances. When we add to all this his natural humanity, and his habits, when not perverted by a bad chief, of forbearance in an enemy's country, we must acknowlege in the French army a rare assemblage of interesting qualities. Unhappily, of late years, the troops fixed their attachment exclusively on a single leader; a circumstance almost inseparable from the existence of a military monarchy, and which has been the source of all the afflictions of France.'

Amid all this confidence in the revival of a military force, the Baron speaks with doubt, and even with despondency, of the prospect of France with regard to a navy. We must, however, do him the justice to acknowlege that, notwithstanding his unfavourable prepossessions respecting our disposition to injure France, he discovers no wish to rouse the resentment of his countrymen against us, but even seizes an opportunity of dwelling on those points in which the interest of the two nations may be supposed to harmonize.

'Although the power of France is the great and pre-eminent object of the jealousy of England, it cannot enter into the policy of the latter to favour the aggrandizement of other states beyond a certain limit. At present, her dread of rivalship from France is removed to a distance; and Russia, or even Austria, becomes a more legitimate object of her vigilance. The extent of the former empire is now so great as to be a topic of serious consideration to all the members of the European commonwealth; and as to Austria, it is the interest of England to prevent Italy from being absorbed by one great power, which would overset the independency of the secondary states.'

M. Bignon appears to have been not a little surprized at the assumption of the regal title in the case of Hanover. He was prepared for our endeavouring to extend our ascendancy on the fall of that of France, but little thought that we should be blind to the mischief of embroiling ourselves with German politics; and, he adds, it is a general opinion 'that the possession of Hanover by England gives France a hold on her on the continent, of the same nature which the French colonies afford to England

England by sea.' A continental title can give Britain very little additional weight in the cabinets of her allies.

III. IV. We have not room to enter at length on the remaining divisions of this inquiry; we mean those in which the author dwells on the state of popular feeling in the principal countries of Europe. We have already expressed our sentiments with regard to the present temper of the French, and we shall now give a mixed summary of his views and our own respecting other parts of the Continent.

Russia dates her political consequence from the reign of Peter, whose object was much more to make himself feared than beloved; and his successors, though of a less violent character, have, like him, considered the people as a mere instrument in their hands. Catherine could unbend from imperial stateliness, and relax in conversation with the gay and the learned to a familiarity approaching that of the intercourse of private life: but to the mass of the Russian nation she appeared in no other light than that of a superior being, intitled to dispose of their lives and property. Her subjects may be said to have thought only of God and their Empress, and their impressions respecting both partook much more of terror than of attachment. No change in these degrading sentiments was to be expected under the reign of Paul; whose understanding, originally feeble, had become perverted by a long course of injudicious treatment. Like other men of coarse minds, he had no idea of governing but by force; and he was accustomed to say that the "Russians could be kept at their duty only by an iron hand covered by a velvet glove." It is needless to add how soon he threw off this velvet, and exposed himself to the resentment of his court and subjects. When his death took place, Europe saw with uneasiness a young and gentle prince placed at the head of these barbaric tribes: yet he has not only ruled with safety, but has been enabled, by the attachment of his subjects, to call forth all their resources in vindication of the claims of Europe. Were the Russians so fortunate as to have a series of rulers of this character, we should see arise among them that spirit of attachment to the person of the sovereign which is so natural to Frenchmen. At present, however, this empire furnishes an almost endless task to the legislator, since civilization can hardly be said to extend beyond the precincts of the capital and a few of the leading towns.

Germany presents us with a very different spectacle, particularly in the northern divisions. Vienna being too remote from the centre, and too little advanced in knowlege to take a lead, Berlin and Saxony may be regarded as the nursery of literature and

and focus of national spirit. The early introduction of protestantism, the share of civil liberty enjoyed by certain cities, and, more recently, the improving example given by Frederick II., have all contributed to promote the progress of this part of Europe. It is here accordingly that the flame of opposition to *Bonaparte* was first kindled; and that societies were formed and books circulated for the purpose of rousing the minds of youth to resistance, and asserting the independence of the German name. The spirit thus diffused was a main cause of the ease with which Prussia raised her armies in 1813; and it was this which contributed to make the Saxons forsake *Bonaparte* at the battle of Leipsic.

'Now,' adds M. BIGNON, 'that the object of deliverance is attained, as far as a foreign yoke is concerned, it becomes expedient for the governments at home to give a just direction to the activity that has been excited. They may be assured that it cannot be repressed by force, and that the soundest policy is to meet it by concession on the part of the nobility and the rulers. The acquisition of liberty as a nation leads naturally to the desire of liberty as individuals; and to refuse the concessions demanded by the improved state of this country would be to incur a hazard something like that which produced so dreadful an explosion in France. The Prussian government does not possess that hold on the people by means of the clergy, which exists in catholic countries; and hence the necessity of a constitutional tie. When both are wanting, we may be assured that in these days the power of a prince is not firmly fixed, particularly when he happens to be deficient in the attraction of personal qualities. Under the first successor of Frederick II., royalty fell much in public estimation, and needed for its recovery all the valuable characteristics of the present king; who was aided in conquering the affections of his people by the amiable qualities of his young partner. The hearts of subjects are formed for attachment; and seldom has so near an approach been made in Prussia to that flow of enthusiasm which the French feel for their sovereign, as Berlin manifested towards that beautiful and interesting Princess. She was snatched by a premature fate from the love of her people, but she still lives in their remembrance; and her shade may be said to extend its protecting influence around the throne of her husband.'

In *Austria*, the spirit of political discussion has as yet made little progress. The calm and acquiescent people of that country know scarcely any other feelings than such as prompt them to obedience to their sovereign: but they were roused to an unexpected discontent in 1810, when they beheld the daughter of their Emperor given in marriage to their greatest enemy. The upper ranks, in particular, were indignant at this measure: they felt their antipathy still farther excited on seeing, in 1812, an Austrian army take the field in a French cause; and no sooner had the loss of the French army

army in Russia opened the prospect of the recovery of independence, than the court was assailed with loud murmurs for delaying to embrace the happy opportunity of ridding Germany of her oppressors. It was curious to see the phlegmatic Austrians animated with an ardour which embraced not only the higher classes, but found its way even to the lower; and their hatred of *Bonaparte* was soon combined with an impatience at the conduct of the Emperor Francis, whom they strongly suspected of partiality for his son-in-law. The bold language used in society, relative to the conduct of ministers and the Emperor, presented a singular contrast to the uniform acquiescence of past days: while the army, sharing in the general feeling, was impatient to take the field.

Bavaria is usually considered as one of the countries in which the masonic and other private associations had made the greatest progress. It is even said that they had projected, in concurrence with their brethren in Prussia, attempts against the government, under the specious pretext of promoting the comfort of the people: but we are more inclined to look for the seeds of discontent in another cause, the too abrupt proceedings of the government in abolishing the monastic orders in a part of the country not ripe for the innovation. However, the charge of precipitation is the only one that can be brought against the late sovereign of this part of Germany; who possessed, in other respects, so strong a claim to the love and confidence of his subjects.

The Duke of Wirtemberg succeeded, several years ago, after a long struggle with his States, in effecting a political change, and in increasing the share of power belonging to the executive part of the government. His subsequent elevation by *Bonaparte* placed him, in a manner, beyond the controul of his subjects: but the recent deliverance of Germany, accomplished, as it in a great measure was, by the efforts of the people, seems to open the door to a demand for the recovery of their just rights. This demand may be resisted for a time by the influence of a court, or the presence of a military force: but it will at last prevail, and the wisest policy, on the part of a sovereign, is to meet it half-way.

Next to Germany, the state most affected in political feeling by the events of the present age is *Italy*. The usurpation of the French government in that country had introduced, amid a number of abuses, some principles of the greatest importance; such as equality in point of right, and of the administration of justice. Under a ruler like *Bonaparte*, equality could be called little else than uniformity of subjection: but the public bore with it in the hope of its being a prelude to better days.

A change

A change has come, but it is a change in which they are threatened with a re-introduction of the perversions of the old government; particularly with the ascendancy of the privileged classes, to the exclusion of their humbler competitors. Such a state of things must produce uneasy sensations in Piedmont, and even in Rome: but the mind rests with satisfaction on the political condition of Tuscany. That country was so wisely governed for a number of years, that the people have nothing to desire but the re-establishment of their former laws.

After this ample abstract of the views of M. BIGNON, it remains merely to say a few words on the composition of his book. A desire to bring it speedily before the public probably urged him to print it without having given it a final polish; so that the style, though always clear, is not exempt from the faults of diffuseness and repetition. The extracts which we have made are not strictly literal, because we have had no scruple in condensing the expressions; the importance of the matter being such as to make us desirous of exhibiting it to our readers in the shape best calculated to fix their attention. We have, however, introduced nothing that is at variance with the spirit of the work; which, on the whole, is so satisfactory, that we should gladly see the notice of a new edition, with the alterations necessary to adapt it to the state of France since the final overthrow of *Bonaparte*, and the conclusion of the second treaty of Paris.

ART. II. *Voyage en Autriche*, &c.; *i. e.* Travels in Austria, or a Statistical and Geographical Essay on that Empire; with a Map, Sections of the Height of Mountains, and Comparative Tables of the Extent and Population of Austria. By M. MARCEL-DE-SERRES, formerly Inspector of Arts and Manufactures, and Professor of Sciences in the University of France; Member of the Academies of Gotha, Erfurt, Jena, &c. &c. 4 Vols. 8vo. pp. 1974. Paris. 1814. Imported by De Boffe.

OF this very comprehensive and circumstantial specimen of statistical labours, the magnitude might excite some surprise as coming from a writer whose nation has yet made no great progress in geographical, or at least in statistical research: but a short examination of the book is sufficient to shew that it is indebted for its extent and its minuteness to the previous collections of German authors, who have been long famous for their diligence and accuracy in this department. The work bears, in its general want of connection, and in its occasional discrepancies, the evidence of being drawn from very

very various sources: but it possesses, on the whole, a claim to the public attention, as well from the care bestowed on its compilation as from the importance of the empire which it professes to describe.

The contents of the different volumes may be thus stated:

Vol. i. treats of the Austrian empire generally. Its principal divisions are, 1. Extent of territory; population; soil and climate; inhabitants, and their different races. — 2. Constitution of government; military establishment; administration of law; religion; education; trade; manufactures and agricultural produce.

Vols. ii. iii. and iv. treat separately of the respective provinces of the empire, in the following order: Austria, Upper and Lower; Styria; Carinthia; Austrian Silesia; Moravia. Bohemia; Galicia, and the Bukowine (in Poland); Hungary; Sclavonia; Croatia; Transylvania; and the region of military frontier on the side of Turkey.

After a succession of wars during twenty-four years, after a long series of disasters and a progressive diminution of territory, we see the Austrian empire once more placed in a situation that qualifies her to act a distinguished part in the European confederacy. Immense as have been the losses of France, and considerable as are the acquisitions of each of the four great powers united against her, the share of Austria is perhaps the most splendid of all. She has recovered Lombardy, consolidated her Venetian acquisitions, confirmed her influence over the south of Germany, and put an end to those tedious contentions which arose from her struggles with Prussia for the controul of the northern part of the empire. Her population is not short of twenty-eight millions, an amount equal to that of France, and inhabiting a territory susceptible of the most extensive improvement. Still, much is wanted to give her that compact and consolidated character, which is necessary to the strength of every state. Various causes have concurred to prevent the different parts of this noble fabric from becoming closely united to each other. Distinct originally in their descent, the several tribes comprising the population of Hungary, Bohemia, Austria, and Moravia, have not had those facilities for incorporation which exist in an industrious and enlightened community. All history shews that civilization spreads most rapidly in countries of which the intercourse is accelerated by the means of navigation. The early prosperity of Egypt, and the rapid progress of Greece, are chiefly to be traced to a cause which strikes the eye on the first inspection of a map; while a similar reason suffices to the geographical observer in accounting for the ignorance and barbarism of Africa.

The Austrian dominions are almost all inland, divided from each other by lofty mountains, and little connected by navigable rivers;—and, moreover, when the light of Reformation was bringing improvement and industry into other parts of Europe, Austria was unhappily deprived of the boon by the short-sighted and selfish calculations of its sovereigns. Hence a general ignorance among the people, and an inability to keep up with neighbouring kingdoms in the career of useful attainments. So deficient, indeed, is the system of education throughout this empire, that, on inquiring the birth-place of any of her great statesmen or warriors, we almost always discover them to be foreigners. Such was the case with *Montecuculi* and *Eugene* in a former age: such in our own days has been the case with *Clairfait*, *Bellegarde*, *Frimont*, and others.

It is to this deficient knowlege, and the consequent want of skill and energy in almost every department, that we are to attribute the long continued disasters of Austria in her contests with revolutionary France. Admitting her own resources to have been inadequate to a struggle with that adversary, they were certainly raised to an equality by British subsidies, and by our very efficient co-operation at sea. It follows that we are to look for the causes of these repeated failures less in the deficiency of means than in the mode of their application. Unluckily, the reigning princes of the house of Austria have seldom possessed talents calculated to compensate for the ignorance of their subjects. The author of the memoirs of Prince *Eugene*, in speaking of the character of Joseph I., who died in 1711, calls him the "only Austrian emperor since the time of Charles V. who had any thing of a marked character, and who was free from superstition." Maria Theresa, though not devoid of energy, was led after 1756 into a course of policy greatly at variance with the true interests of her subjects and of Europe. Her son, Joseph II., perverted good intentions and comprehensive views by a most unfortunate impatience and changeableness of character: he felt the backward state of his empire, and was eager to amend it: but he had no conception of the length of time that was requisite to accomplish a change without mischief, and no just sense of the limitations which it behoved him to impose on himself with regard to the number of his projects. The consequence was that almost all his abrupt and ill-advised innovations have been necessarily laid aside: in fact, had they been introduced among a people less loyal and acquiescing than the Austrians, they might have had the effect of engendering a political volcano like the French Revolution.

Austria, therefore, has been restored by late events to more than her antient power in point of revenue and population, without having as yet raised herself, on the score of knowlege or productive industry, to a level with her western or northern neighbours. Viewed as a political engine, her composition presents great resources, and great defects: no part of Europe surpasses the Imperial dominions in fertility, or in susceptibility of improvement: rich corn lands, luxuriant pastures, abundant mines, all characterize those favoured regions; while no subjects can surpass the Austrian, the Hungarian, the Bohemian, or the Tyrolese, in loyalty to their sovereign, and in a firm determination to resist foreign invasion. The reverse of the picture exhibits a government ill qualified to appreciate the advantages of peace; aiming at aggrandizement by the vulgar and short-sighted policy of war; and devoid of the knowlege which is requisite to blend, in one common mass, the heterogeneous portions of its people. Moreover, throughout a great part of the empire, and particularly in Hungary, the progress of agriculture is checked by the unfortunate maintenance of feudal usages; and it is still a law in that illiterate kingdom, that landed property can be held only by a man of rank: so that the cultivator has but an indirect and imperfect interest in the fruit of his labour. We subjoin a quotation from M. DE SERRES, respecting this great division of the Austrian monarchy:

Hungary.—'No nation in Europe has a more marked physiognomy or character, or a more decided attachment to antient usages, than the Hungarians. They look on themselves as distinct from and greatly superior to their neighbours. Their stature is tall, their features are bold rather than intelligent, and their complexion is dark. Their language is said to approach materially to that of the Finns. The gentry, by which are to be understood all but traders of the lower orders, are intitled to wear a sabre, and are commonly dressed in boots and pantaloons: the lower classes wear a coarse shirt, coarse pantaloons, and in cold weather throw a sheep's skin over their humble garments. All ranks are remarkable for their slowness and gravity of demeanor.

'Hungary is both the most extensive and the most fertile division of the Austrian empire: but it would be a point of no small difficulty to ascertain its territorial dimensions, very little pains having hitherto been taken with the measurement either of the interior or of the frontier districts. A similar degree of apathy and deficient progress marks all the proceedings of the government and the people. Large and fertile as is the Hungarian territory, its population is only between seven and eight millions: many rich tracts continue in pasture, in consequence partly of the indolence of the peasantry, and partly of a most absurd law which deprives them of the right of holding property, and vests it in the clergy and nobility: indeed, attention to agricultural improvements is not to be expected from men who

are absorbed during war in the labours of the field, and in peace in the pleasures of the chace. Their incomes, greatly inferior as they are in comparison of the amount which they might attain, are sufficient for their rude mode of life; so that the only improvers are a few of the great proprietors, who have imbibed, during the last or the present age, a portion of the taste which is prevalent in the provinces to the east of Vienna.

'The inhabitants of Upper Hungary are in the habit of coming down to their countrymen in the plains, and of aiding them in their harvest, like the Welsh and Scotish Highlanders. In the north of Hungary, the farms being smaller, and the aristocratic feeling less extravagant, the inhabitants have it more in their power to act with the spirit of men labouring for their own interest; and they are consequently much less indolent and backward than the Hungarian of the south, who aims at nothing beyond a meal of bread and bacon, and in point of clothing is content with a woollen shirt and drawers. — No country combines a greater variety of distinct races than Hungary. It was, in former ages, the resort of the pastoral tribes who were driven from the north and east on the frontiers of the Roman empire: at a subsequent period, it was traversed by large bodies of crusaders. It has long been a kind of field of battle between the Turks and the Christians; and many of the combatants, struck with the beauty of the country, found it convenient to take up their abode in it after their ardour for military struggles was past. A more powerful reason still for the maintenance of old distinctions between different tribes may be discovered in the slow communication between one district and another, and the transmission from father to son of the peculiar customs of each race. — The centre and south-west of Hungary are inhabited chiefly by tribes of Madjar descent, the lower classes of whom speak a peculiar language, while the higher make use of a corrupted Latin. The latter is likewise adopted for public worship, the administration of law, and for all acts proceeding from government. Joseph II. attempted to abolish its use, but in vain.

'The Germans, or rather descendants of Germans, scattered through Hungary, are numerous only in particular districts. Joseph II., desirous of introducing habits of regular industry into this uncultivated region, encouraged a number of Suabians to remove thither in the course of his reign, so that about thirty-three villages were formed of these emigrants in the years 1786 and 1787. The other Germans settled in Hungary are of Austrian, Bavarian, and Franconian origin. —

'The Pandours, or *Manteaux rouges*, so well known in Austrian warfare, are light troops raised in the district of Bath, in Lower Hungary, and derive their name from a town in that quarter called Pandour. These men are armed with a musket, a sabre, and two pistols stuck in their girdles; all of which they handle with great dexterity. As to dress, their head is covered with a cowl like that of a monk, and their body with a large cloak, under which they wear a short dark-coloured jacket and blue pantaloons. A still rougher tribe of warriors are the Seressans, who inhabit the borders of Transylvania and Moldavia. Their arms consist of a carbine and

two

two cutlasses; their dress is similar to that of the Uhlans, and their military service is like that of the Tyrolese chasseurs.'

The majority of the Hungarian tribes are of Sclavonian descent: but we here also find Armenians, Jews, and Macedonians, though in comparatively small numbers. The languages are almost as numerous as the tribes; Hungarian, German, Polish, Bohemian, Wallachian, and Modern Greek, being all spoken in the different districts inhabited by the descendants of emigrants from those countries. In religion, an almost equally great diversity prevails, Catholics being mixed with the followers of the Greek church, and with Protestants of various denominations. Public instruction is still more neglected in Hungary than in the rest of the Austrian dominions, in consequence of the general backwardness of the country and of the existence of so many religious sects, each of whom is desirous of having its own seminaries. Manufacturing industry partakes of the general apathy; the inhabitants, particularly in the south, having no idea of going beyond a supply of the bare necessaries of life.

Bohemia. — This kingdom is much farther advanced in manufactures, but, like Hungary, finds its agricultural prosperity greatly retarded by the existence of feudal usages:

'Bohemia (in German, Bœhmen) is about 160 English miles in length, and 140 in breadth. Its population exceeds 3,000,000, the major part being of Sclavonian extraction. The Bohemians are not tall in stature, but healthy and active: slow in their resolutions, but patient and laborious. Insurrections have not been frequent in their history, but, when they have occurred, have been extremely difficult to quell. To the Hungarian, the Bohemian feels considerable attachment; to his German neighbours, a decided aversion. The native or aboriginal race exists in the greatest number in the central part of Bohemia, where they speak their own language, and know very little of German. The Bohemian tongue is accounted copious, of soft pronunciation, and particularly favourable to the modulation of the voice in singing, but it has undergone, in the course of ages, a very considerable change from the progressive introduction of the German, a language which has in a great degree supplanted it along the frontier-provinces of the kingdom. Even in the interior, German is the vehicle for all public acts, and is currently spoken in every town of consequence. Numbers of its vocables thus find their way into the Bohemian, but the latter is not for that reason likely to be banished from current use, as well on account of the national feeling of those who speak it, as from the works of the authors who have chosen, during the last century, to make it the medium of their publications.

'Bohemia and Austrian Silesia are the provinces of the empire which have made the greatest progress in productive industry. Among other manufactures, that of linen has been carried to a great

length during the last forty years. Joseph II. introduced colonies of weavers and bleachers from Silesia. Lace is also manufactured here in a considerable quantity, though not comparable in fineness to that of the Netherlands.'

National Character of the Austrians. — Amid the mortifying reflections suggested by the unfortunate adherence to old and pernicious usages throughout this empire, the mind fixes with satisfaction on the mild and amiable disposition of the people. With less knowlege than their Protestant neighbours in the north, the Austrians possess all the sincerity and fidelity of the German character; and so generally are these qualities handed down from father to son, and so visible are the habits created by them, that a German would make a very aukward figure in attempting to imitate the artifice of his southern neighbours. Another valuable characteristic consists in the love of method, and perseverance in labour; — qualities which would have long ago given them a high rank in the scale of productive industry, had they not been counteracted by a general want of animation, and by inveterate slowness.

'An Englishman or a Frenchman, travelling in Germany, is often told on the occurrence of even a slender difficulty, "I cannot do what you desire; the thing is impracticable." The method of prevailing on them to exert themselves is not to offer them money, but to assume the language of command: for a German views superior station or birth with a kind of religious veneration. The causes of their slowness and want of enterprize are various: the physical reasons are to be sought partly in the effect produced on the constitution, by injudiciously confining themselves during the winter-evenings in rooms heated by stoves; and partly in the heavy quality of their beer and other drinks. Again, few things are of greater annoyance to foreigners in Germany than the stiffness and formality attached to the behaviour of the upper ranks. In families of old date, the value of the dowry of a lady is generally computed by the length of her parchment-roll. This remark holds in the south of Germany: but the north is less prejudiced, although still at a great distance from a proper estimate of such splendid trifles. The Germans are in the habit of making their meetings rather scenes of disquisition than of cheerful communication; and hence we find much monotony in their society, and more attraction to an observer of the flow of natural feeling in the unrestrained intercourse of a single family, than in a large party. Germans appear to disadvantage in company, because they are deficient in that easy and graceful manner which prevails so generally in France, and leads foreigners occasionally into such egregious mistakes with regard to the capacity of the individual.

'The Germans seldom give a direct answer to a question, but are apt to diverge into collateral reasoning, and to require a repetition of the question before they can be brought back to the point at issue. At last, their answers are often vague respecting even matters of fact, on which hesitation ought to be almost impossible.

'The

'The turn of the Germans for retirement makes them fond of gardening: but the embellishment of their retreats generally points to an object of utility, seldom to one of mere display. Different from the French, they proceed on the plan of avoiding artificial ornament, and of adorning nature only with her own beauties.—Another practice, deserving of notice in several parts of Germany, is the number of rude paintings on the outside of the houses of the old nobility, intended to exhibit the portraits and the chief events in the history of the successive Lords of the mansion. For some ages back, this usage has been going out of fashion, but enough still remains on the principal buildings of several towns to fix the attention of the passing traveller.'

The Germans have made a considerable progress in mechanics; implements of wood and metal being finished with success in the cottage of the peasant; while the manufactures of their great towns exhibit in a high degree the improvement which is attendant on long practice and considerable subdivision of labour. We ought not, moreover, to refuse the Germans the merit of invention; they have a title to claim the discovery of printing, and perhaps the composition of Gunpowder: but their great inferiority is with respect to the fine arts, their views generally pointing towards objects of utility, and being little stimulated by the gratification of taste. In point of science, particularly metaphysical science, they have, during the last century, excited considerable attention. How far their favourite views in this department of philosophy, or the rules by which many of them profess to guide their researches, are conducive to the advancement of real knowlege, it is not now our province to determine; and it is sufficient for our purpose to remark that the prosecution of all which requires attentive meditation is extremely natural to a people of their habits.

The want of national union, so long observed among the Germans, can scarcely be alleged as a reproach to the present generation: it was evidently owing to the opposite course pursued by their respective governments, as long as they deemed themselves safe in prosecuting their separate interests in their own way; and it *ceased* to prevail when the tyranny of *Bonaparte* awakened them to a conviction that their only chance of liberty was to be found in their union. The change was ardently promoted by the activity of the literary men in the north of Germany, whose writings were highly animated and patriotic.

Religion.—It is some satisfaction to find that, however the several tribes and nations composing this great empire may differ in religious belief, we need have no apprehension of these differences proving a source of political contention.

Long ago the Emperors of Austria were taught, by their fruitless struggle with the Protestants of the North, the destructive tendency of wars of religion; and their policy for a considerable time has been extremely tolerant. The majority of the population is Catholic; next in number are the followers of the Greek church; and thirdly the Protestants, who, putting Lutherans and Calvinists together, are computed to amount to three millions. Among the sects of inferior amount, are reckoned Jews, Armenians, and even a few Mohammedans, who have been attracted by commercial business to settle within the range of the Austrian dominions.

Military Establishment.—The Austrian army has long been noted for its firmness and perseverance under defeat; and if properly commanded it would be equally conspicuous for promptitude and activity in offensive operations. Here, as in every other department, we have to lament the want of correspondence between the value of the machinery and the hands appointed to guide it. Why should not the men who display patience and courage in a retreat give evidence of the virtues that are conspicuous in active warfare? The sources of the qualities for either situation are the same; viz. loyalty to the sovereign, a habit of subordination, the possession of personal courage, and fortitude in submitting to great privations for the attainment of an important object. The causes of defeat are therefore to be sought in the want of combination in the Generals; in an absurd limitation of their powers; in a blind deference to family-rank; and in a strange deficiency in the tactical instructions promulgated by government, which are needlessly minute concerning individual exercise, and extremely brief as to the movements of collected bodies. To all these reasons of inferiority when compared with their western neighbours, are to be added an habitual slowness and want of enterprize in their officers; who, accustomed to proceed in the same track from year to year, are much better calculated for executing the orders of a superior, than for supplying any unexpected deficiency by their own resources. The whole case will be found to resolve itself into a general want of education throughout the empire, and to lead to the practical lesson that the cultivation of peace and the diffusion of knowlege are the grand means of giving strength to the Austrian monarchy.

The following statement of the Austrian forces was published with the sanction of government in the year 1805:

Regiments of infantry, 15 Hungarian (of 3584 men each, when complete); 16 Bohemian (of 3264 men when complete); 9 Moravian; 7 Galician; 5 Austrian; 2 Styrian and 1 Carinthian,

thian, all similar in number to the Bohemian; so that the total, when complete, ought to have been - - 177,792

11 Regiments of frontier or irregular infantry, viz.	
Croats, Transylvanians, and others, each between 2 and 3000, forming a total of	29,000
Chasseurs on foot and garrison battalions	9,000
Cavalry: — 8 regiments of cuirassiers, each of 824 men - - - -	6,592
6 Dragoon regiments of similar force -	4,944
12 Hussar regiments on a larger scale -	13,646
6 Regiments of light horse - -	6,972
3 Regiments of Uhlans - - -	3,486
A body of artillerymen, more than -	10,000
Making a total of fully - - -	260,000 men.

Finances. — A long interval of peace will be necessary to recruit the exhausted finances of Austria; since a very considerable debt has been incurred in the wars of the present age, and the government-paper has fallen into complete discredit: while the means of recovery must necessarily be slow in a country which possesses so few opulent merchants, and the principles of productive industry are so little understood. The mass of debt is said to amount to 150,000,000l. sterling, without being in strictness equal to half the sum, the greater part being contracted in paper at a time when that currency was much depreciated. The total of the revenue is variously stated, and may be taken at between fifteen and twenty millions sterling; a sum which, making allowance for the difference in the value of labour, is fully equal to twice its amount in England.

Vienna. — We conclude our extracts from the work of M. SERRES by the following description of the capital:

'Vienna, in German Wien, is delightfully situated in the midst of a plain diversified by a number of picturesque eminences and hills. The adjacency of a vast river, agreeable walks, variety of prospect, and fertility of soil, all concur to render its appearance beautiful, and would make it an enchanting abode, if a variable climate and an atmosphere often obscured by fogs did not overcast the cheerfulness of the scene. Its streets are unluckily as narrow as those of any town in the South of Europe. It is divided into two great parts, the city and the suburbs; and nothing can exhibit a greater contrast than these component parts of the same capital: the suburbs surprising us by their extent and beauty, while the city disappoints us by its mean and crowded buildings. A stranger is perpetually impressed with the belief that the inhabitants are in a state of confinement within their crowded dwellings; and this impression is abundantly

dantly confirmed by the impatience of the citizens to exchange them in the spring for the free air of the suburbs. In the latter, wide streets, extensive gardens, and large edifices, all unite to enable the inhabitants to pass the summer to their satisfaction.

'Few spots are so intersected with water as the neighbourhood of Vienna. The Danube divides itself into a variety of channels, and exchanges its usual rapidity for a tranquil course, as if disposed to linger in this beautiful scenery: but scarcely has it left the vicinity of the capital, and advanced into the Hungarian territory, when it rolls its current along with all its former impetuosity. One of the arms of this river, flowing between the city and the suburb of Leopoldstadt, serves for the purpose of navigation, and is crossed in four different places by wooden bridges. Two rivulets, the Als and the Vienna, (Wien Fluss,) pass in the neighbourhood of the town, and conduce to the cheerfulness of the prospect. Small as they generally are, the overflow of their waters, in 1785, was productive of very serious consequences.

'The city of Vienna is of an oval form, extending in length above three miles, and in width somewhat more than two. The suburbs, great and small, are in number thirty-three. A century ago, several of these suburbs were only villages, or country-seats; and their increase has been chiefly owing to the abrogation, by Joseph II, of the feudal rights possessed by the landed proprietors of the spot, after which the district became intitled to the same privileges as the rest of the capital. In the year 1683, Vienna saw a Turkish army under her walls; and the suburbs, at that time not exceeding three or four, were burned on the approach of the enemy, or destroyed in the course of the siege. They began to be reconstructed in the next year on an improved plan, being laid out in a semi-circular form around the town, and separated from it by ramparts and broad ditches.

'The population of Vienna amounts to nearly 230,000, of whom by much the greater part occupy the suburbs. It cannot be called a healthy capital, the annual Bills of Mortality exhibiting frequently a list of deaths in the proportion of one in fifteen. The great cause of this extra proportion is, no doubt, the resort of country-invalids to the infirmaries of the capital: but other causes are to be found in the humid atmosphere, the confined dwellings, and above all in the closeness of the rooms, heated by stoves. Will it be believed that chimnies seldom occur in private houses in Vienna? yet in the city the houses consist of 4, 5, or 6 stories; though in the suburbs their height is less considerable. The inhabitants are in general sober; and even those who depart from a temperate course partake too much of the national apathy to become objects of annoyance to others.—In a country in which tranquillity is accounted the greatest of all enjoyments, we are not to look for either variety or vivacity in amusements; which, indeed, are conducted with as much regularity as serious business, and often with as much formality as a public ceremony. The fashionable resorts are the walks and the theatres. The former are much frequented at Vienna, and very deservedly, the progress of vegetation being delightful.

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'Unfortunately, the youth in Vienna have little disposition to improve themselves by cultivating female society; and hunting and gambling are as much the resource of the idlers of this as of any other capital: while literature obtains scarcely any attention except from those who make it their sole object. The inhabitants of Vienna are in general hospitable, and no where is hospitality more necessary, because the inns are few in number and scantily supplied. Dining houses were in a manner unknown until the arrival of some French *Restaurateurs* in the days of *Bonaparte*'s success.

'The climate of Vienna is very variable, passing often from an oppressive heat to keen cold in the course of a few hours: but the unwholesome tendency of these sudden changes, and of the vicinity of too much water, is counteracted by a breeze which rises almost daily about 10 o'clock in the forenoon. These breezes, when coming from the west or south, are not unfrequently accompanied by rain, while the east wind brings dry weather, and the north commonly produces cold.

'The water used for drinking at Vienna has sometimes the same effect on strangers as the water of the Seine at Paris; and the water of the Danube requires to be filtered.—Few cities of the extent of Vienna possess such a number of public squares; since it counts eight that are of a considerable size, and nearly as many of inferior extent. The most regular of all is called the Hof or Court, a name given to it from the Palace built in it at a very remote date by the Austrian margraves. It was ornamented by Leopold I. with a magnificent column representing the Virgin in a triumphant attitude, and surrounded by angels overthrowing the demons of the lower regions. The Graben, nearly in the centre of Vienna, is a very wide street, the ordinary rendezvous of loungers and strangers. Its coffee-houses are sufficiently light and cheerful to give an air of gaiety to this otherwise tranquil capital: but, of all the public places at Vienna, the most interesting is the *Joseph-plaats*, a square surrounded by elegant buildings. Here are the Imperial Library and Museum of Natural History; and in the centre stands a colossal statue of Joseph II. in a Roman dress, curbing with one hand a fiery courser, and extending his other hand as a token of protection to his people. This statue, including the pedestal, is 36 feet in height; and, without possessing any title to admiration on the score of design, it is very remarkable in point of execution, the metal having been melted and proportioned throughout with so much nicety, as hardly to exhibit a single inequality. The pedestal is of beautiful Hungarian granite.'

Population.—The successive losses of territory, consequent on the wars with France, had reduced the Austrian dominions in 1809 to a population of little more than twenty millions: but that this empire has gained much by the overthrow of *Bonaparte*, and the events subsequent to 1810, may be seen from the following table, which exhibits the Imperial territory in its present state:

Bohemia

authorities, of which he exhibits a formidable list in his introduction: but some allowance ought to be made for this redundancy in a case in which authorities are so numerous, it having been gravely computed that eight hundred publications have appeared within the lapse of half a century on the subject of the Austrian empire. Some of these relate to the origin and history of its different tribes; some to its agricultural and others to its mineralogical productions: but most of them are political and statistical. Another transgression, also common among French writers, and from which M. DE SERRES is by no means exempt, is a wonderful fondness for sentimental effusions. Of this disposition we have a specimen (Vol. ii. p. 128.) in a high flown apostrophe to the shade of Prince Eugene; and again (Vol. iii. p. 252.) in an elaborate comparison between Hungary and Egypt. Hungary, he maintains, stands to Austria in the same relation which Egypt bore to the Roman empire; and he pursues this fanciful notion through several points, in which neither our readers nor ourselves would have much inclination to follow him*. These, however, are only occasional defects: but the great and general objection to the work is its prolixity. Three volumes are given to a topographical account of the different provinces of the empire, and Vienna alone occupies more than a hundred pages. All this space, moreover, is filled without the introduction of any historical matter. In order to justify the extension of the book to such extraordinary dimensions, it would have been incumbent on the author to bestow the greatest attention on the distribution of his materials: carefully avoiding repetitions, facilitating references, elucidating his statements by clear tables, and guarding against fatigue to the attention by careful and scrupulous arrangement. Nothing short of these laborious precautions is necessary to give interest to a statistical work of length, and to prevent the reader from forsaking its dry details for those lighter volumes which appeal to the heart or captivate the imagination: but the true way of making an useful and popular book would have been to condense the information into half the compass, giving a preference to the contents of the first volume as possessing a claim to general attention, and abridging the provincial details contained in the sequel. This plan, combined with a rigid exclusion of all that tends only to display the antiquarian lore of the writer, would have rendered the essay of M. DE SERRES a standard publication on the subject; and even in its present state, it is perhaps the best and most complete that has yet appeared on Austrian

* They will be equally adverse to his notions of political economy, when (as in Vol. i. p. 376.) he speaks with all imaginable composure of Austria incurring an annual loss by the balance of trade.

statistics,

statistics, the author being evidently free from any improper bias, and solicitous to make extensive researches in quest of information. He has inserted a very good map of the empire in its circumscribed state in 1810; and his sections of the height of different mountains deserve to be noticed as conveying clear and easy illustrations. To these he has subjoined two statistical tables, the one exhibiting the relative size of the different provinces of the empire, and the other shewing their relative population.

ART. III. *De l'Angleterre et des Anglais*, &c.; *i. e.* On England and the English, by JEAN-BAPTISTE SAY, Author of the "*Traité d'Economie Politique.*" 8vo. pp. 56. Paris. 1815. London, Berthoud and Wheatley.

THE name of SAY has long been familiar to readers on political economy, and is not unknown to students of general literature. His principal production is that which is mentioned in the above title, and of which we have twice had the satisfaction of giving a favourable report; (M. R. N. S. Vols. xlii. and lxxvii.) but in France he is more generally known to the public as having been the editor of the *Decade Philosophique*, a periodical work of distinction in the time of the Republic. He was also a member, during several years, of the legislative body, but retired from his functions on finding that he and his brethren were rendered little else than puppets to follow in the pageant-train of their military ruler. On the conclusion of peace in May 1814, he lost no time in embracing the opportunity of crossing the channel, for the purpose of making an actual inspection of that productive industry, and those national resources, which had contributed so powerfully to re-establish the balance of Europe; for until that period he seems to have been acquainted with England only through the medium of books and official reports. The observations of a well-informed foreigner are at all times worthy of attention; and we have only to regret that M. SAY did not extend his report of our countrymen and their habits to a greater length.

In France, the population of the towns is in a great measure stationary; and we very seldom see, in the suburbs either of Paris or the provincial cities, those rapid and splendid additions which meet the eye in London, in our sea-ports, and in several of our manufacturing towns. M. SAY was particularly struck with the increase of this part of our population, and notices (pp. 3, 4, 8,) the marked difference between the official returns of 1811 and 1801. They prove, he adds, beyond a doubt, the great increase of our export-trade; an increase owing, in a considerable

siderable degree, to the expences of our government on the Continent, and to the consequent necessity of defraying, by the transmission of merchandise, a burden which it would have been wholly out of our power to have discharged in money:

'While the system of military arrangements called for this increased produce of British industry, the inhabitants of England cannot be said to have derived much advantage from the augmentation; since, if we examine the eventual appropriation of these treasures, we shall find them almost all absorbed in loans and taxes; while the ease with which government borrowed immense sums created a disposition to prosecute the war on a most expensive scale. England pays not only her own soldiers and seamen, and a large proportion of the soldiers of her allies, but she incurs a very heavy additional expence from the distance of many of her operations. Every soldier sent to America or the East Indies costs twice as much as one who is employed in Europe; and abuses take place in various departments, some of which are too intimately connected with the national feelings and predilections to be arraigned by the Opposition. The result of all this is that the taxes have been not only doubled but quadrupled since 1792; and that the national expenditure has annually exceeded their amount by a very considerable sum. If, then, we attempt to draw a comparison between the money paid annually to government and the total income of the nation considered as individuals, we shall be surprised at the magnitude of the proportion that passes into the public Treasury. The income-tax, for the three years ending with December 1812, produced above 13,000,000l. sterling annually, *i. e.* the tenth of a national income of 130,000,000l.; and if we consider that the latter, whether from concealment, indulgence, or other causes, falls short of the total return of the land and labour of the country by seventy millions sterling a-year, we shall still find that in time of war above one half of the whole goes into the Exchequer, for at the period in question the annual expences (including interest of national debt) exceeded 100,000,000l. sterling. The effect of all this is an enormous enhancement of prices; an enhancement which, very far from augmenting the profit of the dealers in commodities, is attended with a considerable diminution of it. We find less of leisure, less enjoyment of time without occupation, in England than in any other country. Coffee-houses frequented by loungers are by no means so numerous in London as in the other great cities of Europe; and the public walks are almost deserted every day except Sunday: because, in this expensive country, a relaxation of labour would bring with it not merely a diminution of profit but something approaching to embarrassment. Manufacturers and shopkeepers are consequently obliged to do business on a very slender profit, and frequently to incur great expence in advertising, and in other modes of attracting customers. A more unfortunate consequence still is a deterioration of the quality of the articles, many of which are sadly fallen from their former reputation. English Silks, for example, are very slight; their leather manufactures are not much better; and even their cotton and broad-cloth are inferior to the qua-

lities of former years. — I have heard it computed that the quantity of Port wine imported into England does not exceed one third of the quantity consumed; in other words, that the adulteration is carried to an extraordinary and unjustifiable length.

'What can be the reason that a nation so active, ingenious, and spirited, should be obliged to submit to so many privations? Are the enjoyments of civil and religious liberty, the freedom of the press, the security of property, and the command of the ocean, advantages of no importance; or do they only tend to put power into the hands of government, without increasing the comfort of the subject? The truth is that, in England, the progress of ministers and other public men has not kept pace with the progress of the nation. The former are as yet far from having a just sense of the folly and ruinous tendency of war: — they have not consented to derive experience from the past, and to consider how often their predecessors have found it necessary to make peace without attaining the objects of their struggle.

'I turn with satisfaction from these distressing reflections to the consolatory prospect offered by the exertion of individuals. The misfortunes of England, as of other countries, take their rise in the higher regions, like the hail and the tempest; her blessings spring from beneath, like the fruits of an inexhaustible soil. In no country are the division of labour and the means of promoting productive industry carried to so great a length. In the course of my journey, I saw at Glasgow dairies of two or three hundred cows, in which milk was sold in the smallest quantities. In every considerable town, I met with schools on the new system, in which a single master finds it practicable to teach two or three hundred scholars by calling in the aid of the more advanced boys. I was still more struck with the extensive application of machinery. In the counties in which agriculture is most advanced, every farm of consequence has a thrashing machine; by means of which as much grain may be prepared for market in the course of a day, as in the course of several weeks by manual labour. Steam-engines are applied to a great variety of purposes; they move spinning machines; they are made to cut glass; and they are introduced into most if not all extensive breweries. I have even seen some appropriated to the embroidery of muslin and the churning of butter. — At Newcastle and Leeds, I saw moving steam-engines dragging heavy loads of coal, and advancing along the road without the direction of any individual. Thirty years ago, London possessed not half-a-dozen of these engines: but it now has several hundreds, and a correspondent proportion will be found in the manufacturing towns. Indeed, such is their superior execution, and such the high price of manual labour in England, that few manufactures can be carried on without the co-operation of these powerful agents. It is necessary, however, to have at hand a stock of coal; a mineral comparatively little known in France, although apparently given to us as to our neighbours for a reserve against that exhaustion of forest-timber which necessarily takes place on the extension of population. In calculating the progress of population in Great Britain during the last century, the best guide would be a map pointing out the districts in which coal was most abundant; since,

wherever it is found at a cheap rate, we may be sure of a proportionate increase of the inhabitants.'

From these compliments to our industry and ingenuity as individuals, M. Say returns, with all the indignation of a political economist, to a second attack on the wastefulness of government. All our efforts, he says, cannot procure the enjoyment of comfort, as long as *l'impôt, le terrible impôt*, extends its ravages on our productive labour. He is a staunch advocate for a parliamentary opposition; and he maintains that, however inferior the number of that party may have been during late years among us, the solidity of its principles and the respectability of the persons belonging to it will not fail to give it importance in a season of public tranquillity.

The author then proceeds to state the leading considerations on the two great topics of public discussion at the time of his visit to England, — the Corn-laws and the Bullion-question. His observations on both discover much judgment: but English readers stand less in need of information on these than on the last object of his animadversion, viz. our establishments in the East and West Indies. It is surprising, he says, that a country, possessed of such means of information and experience, should persist in the notion that these settlements can be advantageous on their present footing. If we look into the official accounts of the receipt and expenditure of the East-India-Company, we shall find the latter exceed the former almost every year; and, as to their profits in their capacity of traders, the late discussions in Leadenhall-street and in Parliament have shewn that, with the exception of that of China, the different branches of their commerce are carried on to a loss. If it be argued that the mother-country still gains by finding abroad a provision for a portion of her inhabitants, the answer is that the incomes in question are generally expended in India, and that the amount of fortunes brought home is much smaller than vulgar credulity imagines. Moreover, what would prevent us from having a trade with India, even if we were not the masters of the country? 'The possession of sovereignty,' says M. Say, 'will never make a people purchase that for which it cannot pay, or which does not correspond to its wants.' Again, the amount of British merchandise exported to India will not be found on an average to amount to two millions sterling; that is, about one sixth of our exports to North America.

'The present colonial system will fall to pieces in every country in Europe, in the course of the nineteenth century. Governments cannot fail to open their eyes to the folly of attempting to manage the administration of countries at a distance of three, four, or five thousand

thousand miles: they will gradually withdraw from so unprofitable a connection; and by putting them in the way of governing themselves, they will open the door to a commerce of mutual advantage, such as is now carried on with the United States. Military and naval establishments, situated at such a distance, may be compared to props employed at a heavy expence to support a building which has seen its best days, and should be allowed to fall quietly to the ground.

'Such, at least in the leading points, is the situation in which the course of public events has placed Great Britain. My sketch of it, however short and imperfect, possesses, I believe, the merit of impartiality. It has been my wish neither to aggravate nor to extenuate the difficulties of her political position, for I am actuated by no feelings that would incline me to either side. I desire the prosperity of England for the same reason which induces me to wish for that of France or of any other country; and so far from this welfare forming an impediment, as our ancestors imagined, to the increase of the comfort and wealth of a neighbouring state, we may take it for granted that nothing can so materially contribute to promote it. If I appear to the English to under-rate their national wealth, and if my French readers are surprized to find in my pages an opinion so much at variance with the current notion that England is the land for the easy and rapid attainment of fortune, my answer is, that the reality is widely different from the appearance, and that my little tract has been composed for the purpose of putting on record truths of great public importance;—truths acquired by nations at a heavy expence, and productive of useful conclusions only to a few minds. The mass of mankind allow events to succeed each other without attempting to trace their causes, or prognosticate their consequences; the thinking few are different; and my object will have been attained, if I have supplied a slight portion of useful materials to this class.'

In comparing the relative expence of living in France and in England, M. Say puts down the latter at double; a proportion more correct with reference to years of war than to years of peace. Provisions in France are considerably below the English rate, but this fact is not applicable to the prices of manufactures or of fuel.—In treating of our principal seminaries of education, the author expresses himself thus:

'At Oxford, a considerable progress is made in study, although on an antiquated plan; at Glasgow, the mode of application is of a more modern cast, and embraces a wider range: at Edinburgh, a stranger has the gratification of finding that the present professors do not fall short of the fame of their precursors of the last age. Literature is pursued there with a philosophic spirit, calculated to give utility and solidity to attainments which, without them, would be little more than objects of vain display.'

The style of this short tract is lively and impressive. The reputation of the author stood already on too solid ground to receive increase from a temporary publication: but the circu-

lation of the present pamphlet may be useful in tending to correct several errors of considerable detriment among ourselves, and of pernicious operation in exciting the envy and aggravating the hostility of our neighbours.

ART. IV. *Aperçu sur la Situation Politique*, &c.; *i. e.* A Sketch of the Political Situation of the United States of America, by General TURREAU, formerly Minister-Plenipotentiary from France to the United States. 8vo. pp. 154. Paris. 1815.

THE French Revolution first introduced M. TURREAU to the notice of the public; and, after having come forwards as a military man in the early part of the war, he went out as French ambassador to America, where he resided during several years. As he was indebted to the Revolution for his elevation and official employment, his writings naturally bear the stamp of attachment to that cause; and, indeed, at the time of composing the essay before us (1811), he saw no reason to apprehend the downfall of the system. Without introducing the name of *Bonaparte*, he spares no pains to urge on the Americans a course of policy that would have corresponded with the views of the late government of France; deprecating that application of their productive industry which brings them in connection with, or, as he maintains, in dependence on Great Britain; and advocating the agricultural system as the best means of rendering them powerful and free. He makes these observations on their population and national character:

'The population of every class and colour in the United States may now amount to between eight and nine millions, a number extremely disproportioned to a country of 2,500 miles in length; and the width of this extensive territory is in a course of annual augmentation, in consequence of treaties successively made with Indian tribes by the American government. The ostensible motive of these treaties is to excite the Indians to exchange their wandering for a stationary life: but, as this is well known to be nearly impracticable, the real object must be to get possession of additional territory by holding out to them inducements to move more and more to the westward. The white population of the United States consists of a very singular mixture: English, Irish, Scotch, Swedes, Germans, Dutch, and French being all component members of the mass; which is farther augmented by a small proportion of Italians, Spaniards, and Swiss. Hence a striking difference of views and feelings in the various classes of the inhabitants. — Another and a more remarkable feature is the feebleness or almost total absence of family-attachments. In consequence of the facility with which the younger members of a family may provide for themselves without the aid of their parents,

we perceive a general want of those domestic ties which in Europe constitute the grand link in the connection of individuals. In fact, in this country of high wages and abundant provisions, people are so independent of each other as to acknowlege scarcely any bond of association, except that of commercial interest. In Europe, a youth quits his native spot with tears, but in the United States he forsakes it without a moment's regret; — relinquishing the society of his friends and parents, and proceeding to settle in a province from which he may never return, without any other reflections than those which relate to the comparative advantages of the two places.

'Agriculture must necessarily be in a very imperfect state, in a country in which labour is so dear, and trade absorbs all people of talents and enterprize. Indeed, the demand necessary to make agriculture flourish depends chiefly on the state of the export-trade, which must unavoidably be influenced by a variety of political contingencies. A very small part of the American territory is yet cultivated; although the practice is to till the same spot for a few years only, at the expiration of which the occupier proceeds to break up new land, and to subject it to the same hasty and imperfect process: the labour bestowed on cultivation being very slight, and the manuring of land being quite a novelty in this part of the world. In the southern States, the labour is performed by negroes, and directed chiefly to tobacco, cotton, and indigo: but in the north, very few negroes are kept, and corn forms the principal object; though complaints are made of the deficient fertility of the soil, especially in the neighbourhood of the coast. It improves in the middle States, particularly as we move inland; and it is said to be highly productive in the western States, where, however, the population is as yet very thinly sown. A traveller has an opportunity of observing, in the western divisions of Pennsylvania and New York, several districts inhabited by Germans, who adhere much more patiently than their neighbours to a given spot, and are easily recognized by the pains which they have taken in improving their lands and their breed of cattle.'

Notwithstanding all his doubts of the stability of the power of Great Britain, the author is not of opinion that we are likely soon to be shaken in our supply of manufactures to the American market. The high price of labour on that continent, the general aversion to sedentary application, the ease with which British goods may be bought at a long credit, the want of sobriety among the workmen, the inferiority of the buildings, and even the danger of fire, are all circumstances of serious consideration to those who speculate on establishing manufactures in America. Workmen can hardly be disposed to consider themselves on a footing of dependence, when the labour of three days is sufficient to procure them support for a week.

In animadverting on the very deficient education which is common in America, M. TURREAU remarks:

'A youth quits school to enter a merchant's counting-house or a pleader's office; and it often happens that, after a few years have passed over his head, without any other opportunity of information than such as is afforded by a situation of mere routine, he is elected a representative of his country in Congress, and is proclaimed a statesman by the huzzas of his townsmen. It is in vain for the Americans to have able Secretaries, or even Presidents, while the majority of Congress is composed of such ignorant and presumptuous characters; since the executive government, not possessing as in Europe the means of silencing or of influencing these inflammatory counsellors, is under the necessity of following their impulse, and of not unfrequently undertaking, as in the case of the invasion of Canada, enterprizes which are at variance with their personal conviction.'

To this point the author repeatedly recurs with expressions of mortification and impatience. 'The United States,' he says, 'may boast of several individuals of considerable information and talents, but their voice is lost in the cry of the multitude; a cry which is almost always directed to objects connected with navigation and foreign trade.' He combats (p. 33. *et seqq.*) the various arguments habitually urged in favour of the latter, and maintains that, rapid as the increase of the wealth and population of the United States has been during the last thirty years, it would have been at least equally remarkable under a different system. With less reason, he expatiates on the successive arrival of bodies of foreigners as the main cause of this wonderful increase. Foreigners cannot be conveyed in such formidable numbers across the Atlantic; and the principal reason of the duplication that takes place in every generation is to be sought in the ease of rearing a family in a newly settled country. M. Turreau alleges that the climate in general is not healthy: but we are disposed to ascribe such instances of extensive mortality as occur rather to the deficient knowlege of the medical men, and to the various inconveniences attendant on a thinly inhabited region; though he is probably correct in laying great stress on the imprudence of the inhabitants in indulging in the pleasures of the table.

It is amusing to see with what vehemence this declamatory Frenchman launches out against merchants and the mercantile spirit:

'A trader, and under this name I comprehend every person employed in commercial dealings, from the shop-keeper to the first-rate merchant who speculates on the perfumes of Arabia, the spices of India, and the blood of Africa; — the trader, I say, has but one principle, one feeling, one object, to which every thing must be sacrificed. Self-interest is the life of business; economy, which, in moderation, is a virtue, becomes avarice in a merchant. Competition makes him jealous of his neighbours; and the consumers at all times are the victims of

of his rapacity. I maintain that trade, by absorbing the resources of individuals, *drains and exhausts* the resources of nations; and such are the privileges of this anti-social profession, that times of general distress are frequently times of mercantile prosperity.'

In a similar strain of exaggeration, the Ex-General discusses the merits of Carthage and England, and ventures to prognosticate the downfall of our greatness. His arguments might claim some regard were they kept within tolerable bounds, and were they confined (as in p. 58.) to warning the Americans against the expence of a great naval establishment; or (as in p. 90.) to the insecurity of commercial intercourse with the colonies of other countries:—he might also have a title to our attention, were he to restrict his animadversions on the conduct of our ministry in 1808 and 1809 to the charge of unfriendly disposition towards the Americans:—but he forfeits his right to our confidence when he alleges (p. 101.) that the secret object of the mission of Mr. G. H. Rose was to promote a separation between the eastern and the middle states. To the list of objections we must add a serious complaint of diffuseness and obscurity in his arguments; which, whether from want of arrangement or of precision, are seldom presented in a clear and cogent manner to the reader.—One of the most striking exceptions to this censure is the short and eloquent address with which he concludes his tract:

'Americans! Nature has been so liberal in her gifts to you, that it ill becomes you to persist in aiming at precarious advantages, different from those which she intended for you, and calculated to withdraw you from your true destination. Let agriculture be your grand object; if you manufacture, let it be only for the supply of your own wants. Avoid foreign commerce, except as far as it can be carried on in your own harbours;—open these to every nation: but make it a rule not to send to sea a single ship of your own. Keep neither ambassadors nor envoys in the courts of Europe, and receive none from them; admit only consular agents, invested with the privileges commonly assigned to that office for the protection of trade.

'In amending your constitution, lessen in some measure the facility of becoming naturalized; your population may not increase quite so fast, but it will be of a sounder stamp. Renounce all conquest even in idea; your territory is already too large; and be prepared for that separation which ere long must take place between your different states, in order that it may be accomplished without a shock. Look on yourselves as a people detached from others, and situated so as to enjoy the gifts of nature under a pacific and liberal constitution. You will then be a happy nation, for history will not speak of you.'

On the whole, this tract discovers a tolerably accurate knowlege of the state of America, and of the principal transactions

of late years: but farther we cannot carry our encomium, since the writer has neither patience nor knowlege to make deliberate conclusions; allowing himself to be influenced by that partial and peremptory spirit which is natural to a man who is wedded to a particular system, and accustomed rather to give orders than listen to admonition.

ART. V. *Voyage Historique, Chorographique, et Philosophique*, &c.; *i. e.* Historical, Chorographical, and Philosophical Travels through the principal Cities of Italy, in 1811 and 1812. By P. PETIT-RADEL, formerly Surgeon-Major to the King, &c. &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1815. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 11s. 6d.

DURING the captious and despotic government of *Bonaparte*, the MS. of this work, we learn, passed through the hands of a censor, paid the usual fine in the sacrifice of passages most consonant with the author's feelings, and demanded a complete revision before it was restored to consistency and to truth. It was evidently intended, like the production of our lamented author Mr. Eustace, to be a manual for Italy: but it differs from that excellent book, partly by assuming in some degree the bias of the author's professional pursuits, and partly by affording delineations of the modern Italian character and manners, which Mr. E. scarcely attempted, excepting as far as they regarded the lower orders. In vain, also, do we here look for our countryman's neatness and life of description, for his profound and well-digested remarks, or for his graceful detail so artfully conducted that we forget the writer, and appear to gather from our own observation the hints of a superior mind, present and presiding over the scenes through which we are conducted.

Here we cannot but pause an instant to oppose a contemptuous objection urged against Mr. Eustace, and tending to hurt his fair fame, which is now unhappily all that we possess of that admirable writer. Would it be credited that a work, bearing on its title-page the name of *Classical Tour*, could become the subject of mockery for performing the engagement which its title had already made with the reader? Yet, so perverse have the assailants of Mr. Eustace shewn themselves, that the very quotations which formed the chain of connection between times past and times present, the very watch-words and counter-signs of the learned of all ages, climes, and manners, are brought against him in the shape of a charge intended to amount to pedantry or puerility. They are said to possess no merit, and to evince no reading:—in a word, to be all borrowed from the happy expedient of referring to indices, without affording

fording any proof of a farther intimacy with the authors from whom the contributions have been made. We have never seen or known Mr. Eustace but from his works; and with this personal ignorance of him we pronounce, without any other ground than his general style and character of composition, that in Latin lore he was really, and if we may so say, sincerely learned. The quotations were possibly not gleaned from memory, because many learned men have memories untrue to the words, and retaining only the sense and substance of passages; they were, for aught that we know, extracted in a great measure from digests of Latin subjects, arranged under their respective classes; and Mr. Eustace, after having promised a work decidedly classical, would have committed an error of the first magnitude in omitting any authorities obtained by any means. The question is simply whether the scheme proposed be really executed; and if it be not executed by Mr. Eustace, we would then inquire who will be so hardy as to undertake it after him.—Another charge, of no less seriousness than his attachment to the Catholic cult, is converted into much sarcastic pleasantry; and his descriptions of the fastuous magnificence of the court and church of Rome, instead of being greeted as the only true and exact likenesses of the things themselves that are extant in our language, are represented only as proofs of mental degradation. Such a man of genius, virtue, understanding, and Christian sensibility, we could really have wished to have counted among our number: but, as a traveller to the country on which he has written, it has been beneficial to the cause of knowlege that he was what he was in point of religious faith. Ignorant as we were of many precise notions entertained by Catholics, and by no means inclined to honour that of which the exterior, as it presents itself to us in these Protestant kingdoms, wears nothing inviting, we had frequently endeavoured to obtain that elucidation from members of the Romish communion, which might account for the violent attachment professed by them for their forms and ordinances: but we had met with countless disappointments in our researches; and, when we arrived with Mr. Eustace at Loretto, the Delphi of Catholicism, and pursued our journey onwards to the vestibule and the altar of St. Peter, we were let into the mystery through the medium of a superior and clearer mind than any that we had encountered before. Although *we* remain unconvinced, and firm as ever in the distinction of principles from the illusion of ceremonies, we feel a conviction that men as good and well meaning as ourselves may be sincere in their attachment to a worship dissonant from our own; and that the Catholic religion in Italy,—beneath the domes and aisles of cathedrals

cathedrals embellished with all that the art of man can devise, lighted with innumerable torches, amid clouds of fragrance and the finest strains of adoration,—and the same religion in a paltry chapel of the metropolis of England, or a hovel in Ireland,—are, not one and the same. For the correctness of our information, it was necessary that the traveller should be a Catholic. Even Addison, one of the most enlightened and moral of Protestants and of men, could not divest himself of prejudice; and, though unapprized of their meaning, he yet attacked pomps and ceremonies into the origin of which he deemed it beneath him to inquire.

Having made the tour of Mr. Eustace the subject of our consideration and our praise in the early part of the last year, we have regarded it as due to him and to our own character for consistency to repel two charges idly brought against a work that will, we conceive, immortalize its author's name. Our only consolation for his loss is the hope that his benign feelings, recommended by a style at once compact and elegant, will extend themselves with every new impression of the "Classical Tour through Italy." Another objection, which we have heard repeated *usque ad nauseam*, will be noticed in the course of our remarks on the work of M. PETIT-RADEL, to which we now return.

This gentleman avails himself of the licence of a preface, to give us a few hints explanatory of his motives for travelling and writing. He brings forwards the names of some half-dozen antients who travelled, and adds that their end and aim were to improve themselves and their country by so doing. We are reminded of Lycurgus, of Plato, of Pythagoras, of the Scythian Anacharsis, of "Pytheas who went to the north while Euthymenes proceeded to the south," of Strabo, of Hippocrates, of Galen, and others quite down to M. PETIT-RADEL himself, who travelled, and were much the better for it. Already distinguished by scholastic recompenses in the art of healing, to which he had addicted himself from his tenderest youth, and excited by the desire of adding to the fund of knowlege which a study of the sciences had procured, the author went to the East Indies; and, on returning to France, he was elected professor in the schools of the Faculty of Paris in 1788, when suddenly the horizon clouded over: the Revolution broke out; many heads were cut off; and, as he pathetically adds, 'to save my own, I embarked on board an American vessel bound for the Isle de Bourbon.' Having traversed large districts of this continent, his destiny again conducted him back to France, and it only remained to crown his researches with a tour through Italy. 'In truth,' he says, 'a classic land must necessarily offer

offer many interesting objects to him who had dared to paint the sweet emotions of the heart in the spring of life, in the well-cadenced language of the antient Romans.' Let the favourites of fortune, he says, speak, on their return, of their acquisitions in pictures, in medals, and engraved stones; or others make a parade of their diamonds and of their precious vases, of which the acquisition, during the troubles engendered by the god of war, has been far from expensive;—'for myself, I deal only in sensations; these are my riches; and they are by so much the more agreeable as they are unaccompanied by remorse.'

We imagine the reader to have already become tolerably acquainted with the sort of mind which dictated the three volumes under review: but the following remark seems absolutely necessary to perfect the intimacy:

'In fact, the traveller who has meditated on objects sufficiently grand to merit his attention, and who has submitted to the crucible of the soundest judgment the ideas which they have suggested, enjoys not only the reality which memory presents to him when awake, but sleep itself, by procuring to him the charm of the sweetest illusions, is, with regard to him, the cause of an *interior life*, so much the more sweet that it is disengaged from all emotion of the senses.'

Should we be reproached with a too literal translation of this paragraph, we own that it proceeded from our fear of disturbing a word of the original, lest peradventure the mysterious and profound sense, which perhaps lies concealed at the bottom, should suffer by the change.

Without following the author through all the windings of his route, we shall from time to time direct our readers to those passages which appear most prominent; and with all his occasional *grandiosity*, and no ordinary inclination to vulgarisms of expression, he is yet not deficient in valuable information, nor always unhappy in description. The passage of the Simplon, one of the highest mountains in the Alpine chain, is a work reflecting the highest honour on *Bonaparte*'s creative mind, and a lasting monument to the memory of M. *Céard*, the French engineer who conducted it from its commencement in 1801 to its present perfection. This gigantic enterprize was accomplished at the united expence of the governments of France and Italy. Unhappily, in viewing these remote and sublime scenes, which nature appears to have denied to the foot of man, traversed almost with the facility of a Languedocian plain, the motive which inspired the work is a gloomy cloud thrown over the prospect. Far from being an attempt to draw peaceful nations nearer to each other by facilitating their benevolent intercourse, this stupendous route is but another arm of

of ready conquest, — another badge of Italian subjection and misery! A fine account of the passage of this mountain has been published, we believe, in Swisserland, with coloured views, one copy of which we have seen in this country. Having crossed it with the present author, we will forbear from turning back with him to dwell on the emotions occasioned by the several objects which it offered to us in succession. Our ancestors, no doubt, were equally awake with ourselves to the charms of nature and the magic of a scene: but books were not so much a drug with them as with us; and they seldom mentioned any thing of which the omission would not have been regretted. Living in an age more prodigal of paper, M. PETIT-RADEL can afford to take us through fissures of rocks, to the mouths of caverns, and to the falls of waters, with a minuteness of display unknown to former days: like Mrs. Radcliffe, he dwells on the colours as they shift in the heavens: too many mornings and evenings are ushered in with paintings of the rising and the setting sun; and description occupies the place where a little sprinking of sense would have an undoubted superiority.

At Milan, M. PETIT-RADEL was much struck with the statue of St. Bartholomew flayed alive, and converting his skin into a kind of robe of which the extremity covers his nudity: — an image formed equally to excite our wonder at the dexterity of the artist and our disgust at the success of his execution *. The author was possibly attracted to it by the fidelity of its anatomical delineations. — The following account of the edifices and mode of life of the Milanese may, with a few variations, be applied to the Italians in general. Milan is the door of Italy; and, as the traveller advances, the account becomes more and more faithful:

« The palaces are on a scale of vastness appropriate to Italian constructions. At Milan we begin to see magnificent flights of steps and terraces, interior basins receiving the water of fountains exquisitely ornamented, porticoes embellished with columns, galleries, vestibules adorned with fine frescos, Mosaic pavements in the Italian manner, — in a word, that architectural luxury which elevates the mind. True it is, these luxuries are frequently gained at the expence of those

* This statue was the work of Marcus Agrati, and bears on it the inscription,

Non me Praxiteles sed Marcus finxit Agrati.

Did the late Lord Orford borrow from this source his well known compliment to the sculpture of Mrs. Damer?

Non me Praxiteles fecit, at Anna Damer.

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convenient distributions which render the house agreeable as a habitation: but, when we aim at inspiring respect, we must submit to a few sacrifices. The principal buildings are the palaces of Serbelloni, Litta, Belgioso, Melzi, Castelli, those of Finance, of the Minister of the Interior, and of the Archbishopric, in which a subterraneous passage leads to the Cathedral, the Royal Palace, the residence of the Viceroy, and formerly that of the Grand Duke, and many others, to be observed in the streets in situations in which they are the least expected. The exterior of these buildings usually promises a splendor of interior which is far from being realized. The Milanese eat too much, keep too many horses and mistresses, and gamble too deeply, to reserve a sufficiency for establishing a correspondence between the exterior and the interior of their habitations. The Genoese have surpassed them in this point by enduring privations in some of these articles: at least they do not exhaust their whole strength in procuring them. The palaces are for the most part adorned outwardly with columns of granite of a surprizing height and volume, and they support cornices of the boldest projections. The doors are of a mean description, frequently of deal unpainted; they admit the light, but merely to expose an inner door which is always shut, and only half of the height of the outer, so that the columns appear above it which form the interior of the portico. The inner door is divided into another yet smaller, through which, as through a wicket, persons in general are admitted, and the master himself when at midnight he returns from a party or from the play. The stables are on the ground-floor of these vast edifices; and the dung which is thrown against the walls of the cellars, or piled up, evaporates in steam through the grating over which the passengers tread: these are so many dens, where the rats revel in full security.'

The Milanese, governed alternately by an Austrian and a Spanish prince, and lately subject to the French, are said to unite in themselves the goodness of the first, the bigotry of the second, and the vivacity of the last-mentioned nation. The facilities of sexual intercourse afforded by the sacredness of private boxes at the theatre must have their effect: these boxes are regular chambers, with their sofas, mirrors, tables for refreshments, and *jalousies*, by the raising or lowering of which is understood the wish to receive or deny access to company. The truth is that the sex are in general very attractive in this city: Nature, who has here done so much for her children, is assisted by art; and all that French fashion and skill can accomplish is here called in to aid her charming creation. In this region, love speaks not the language of sentiment: the church is the usual *rendezvous*; and when, after a few meetings, the eye has questioned and received its answer, the matrimonial benediction is not far off. — In descriptions of private life, the present author supplies the deficiency which we proposed to notice in Mr. Eustace. The similitude of French and Italian procured him advantages which our countryman possibly

sibly could not command; and we must repeat our primary answer, that the tour of Mr. Eustace carries with it no professions in its title-page to elucidate the manners of the people farther than the mere exterior might suggest.

Were we to select from these travels the two districts which are best illustrated, we should give a decided preference to the accounts of Venice and Naples. Many writers have described the palaces of the one and the scenery of the other city, but this author has poured forth indignation on their prisons and hospitals; abodes, we fear, containing a population far more numerous than those of luxury and pride. In our northern clime, it would be difficult to imagine the sufferings of the Venetian prisoners, confined beneath a leaded roof, which, during the summer-season, contracts a heat often more than sufficient to produce madness. The expression "*Metter sotto i piombi*" at once describes and reprobates this cruel incarceration. If the receptacles intended for guilt are thus deadly to their inmates, those which were erected for the sick and unfortunate are not less deleterious, from a total neglect of that order and management which alone are the earnest of returning health. Venice is deficient with regard to the number and accommodation, and yet more in the internal arrangement, of her hospitals. 'One of the most crowded,' says the author, 'is the civil hospital; which has been for some time established on the borders of the grand canal, opposite the Jindeca, in a religious house which was no longer of any utility. The rooms are ill contrived; and, from a total want of circulation of air, a bad smell pervades the interior. The sick, who are numerous, appear to me but ill attended.—This is not the case with the military hospital, in the construction of which two contiguous religious houses have been united, that of the Dominicans, and that of the Orphans.' From these few words, we perceive that the health of the military was scrupulously regarded, while that of the poor citizens was deemed of no importance. The inference is the same with that which we have ever drawn, that the Italian governments were hastening to decay; that the institutions strictly Italian were badly maintained; and that nothing prospered but that which was established and conducted by the master-mind of their conqueror. Italy has, however, every reason to rejoice in the restoration of her works of art. These were her real provinces, her real riches, her real pride and ornament. While they embellished the French capital, they were only so many magnets which attracted foreigners to come and spend their money at Paris; and thus they were the gold-mine of which the produce was to support future wars, and to subjugate or disturb Europe whenever the opportunity should

be presented. Their Parisian possessors had no need of such a stimulus to their pride, or of such an acquisition to their resources: they were already but too vain, but too rich, but too powerful in their own native gifts. These monuments have returned, if not to a people strictly classical in their present abasement, at least to a people who, with respect to the fine arts, bear a nearer similitude to the antients than those who stole them and held them for a day: — they have returned to adorn, some the soil of their birth, and others that of their adoption; — and they have returned to a country of which the divisions are too numerous to afford it the resources necessary for invading the nations on its frontiers. Would that we could add, that, instead of being restored by Austrian influence, they are indebted for their restoration to the living energies of Italy! Would that, amid the mass of evil which must await the Austrian domination, we could trace one single blessing, beyond that of the recovery of these precious marbles and paintings!

Venice has at all times owed more of its fame to its proficiency in the arts than in the sciences; and her artists have so distinguished themselves by their vastness of conception and delineation, and the brightness of their colours, that they have given name to a school of which the celebrity has extended over all the Continent. They are reproached with incorrectness of design: but their compositions are warm with enthusiasm; and, in their management of light, they have produced the richest and most admirable effects.

'Commerce is very active at Venice when the communications are open: but at present it languishes, and to a great degree. One branch of industry, which employs the largest number of hands, is a letter-foundery; and more books are in consequence printed at Venice than in any other Italian city. All the editions, counterfeits, and translations, which are here undertaken with very good success, pass into the Grecian isles, even to Constantinople, and into Spain and Portugal; and thus a considerable revenue is derived from this branch of commerce. The type is usually good, but the paper is very bad. — Jewellery is executed at Venice with more delicacy than in any other part of Italy; especially gold, of which chains are worked with such exquisite art, that the links of them are scarcely visible. Silk, damasks, and stockings, are equally well manufactured. Here is also a manufactory for bleaching the wax bought in the Levant,' &c.

Liqueurs, glasses, locks, and soap, employ a multitude of hands; and generally speaking, in defiance of every shackle imposed on her commerce, Venice is here represented as the most industrious city in Italy.

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'The manners of the people (continues M. PETIT-RADEL) partake at Venice, more than in any other city, of the character impressed on them some years since by the government; every individual, dreading the effect of denunciations, lived under a kind of constraint, and scarcely avowed his opinions with frankness even within his own walls. The only conversations, which could safely be maintained, turned on objects indifferent to the Council of Ten; and even then it was dangerous to adventure on certain points which might awaken resentment, while false accusers were ever ready to seize an occasion, and punishment was not slow in waiting on imprudence. At present, this order of things no longer exists: but the spirit is still the same; and a generation must pass away before it obtains a better direction.'

We much fear that neither cause nor effect will disappear beneath the leaden rod of Austrian despotism and dulness.

The short sketch given of the history of Bologna is in the author's best style of recapitulation. He remounts the stream of time, to the earliest settlement of the Boïan Gauls, from whom the antient name of Boïona was attached to this city, the nucleus of their cantonments; and, with a rapid and correct pen, he brings the reader, through the many revolutions and foreign and internal convulsions, down to the establishment of the French government: which, succeeding to one that was both puny and tyrannical, was, by comparison, better than the city had hitherto enjoyed.

On traversing Rome with this author, we are inclined to ask for what purpose is this laborious research, this tale told for the ten thousandth time, this repetition of *La Lande?* Considered as furnishing a supplement to other books of Italian travels, M. PETIT-RADEL is useful in delineating times and manners that are present: but the monuments of art have been described so often and so well, that we pass them by to arrive at "existing circumstances."

'Manners have undergone a great change since the establishment of the French power in the capital of the Christian world; and Gallic frankness replaces the dissimulation which an ecclesiastical government kept up among those who enjoyed its indulgences. Urbanity is spreading among every class of citizens, and satire has no longer the same sway as in the time when Pasquin had frequent conversations with Marforio. The nobles, who know by recent experience that the distance between them and their inferiors is not so great but that it may at times be overleaped, no longer offer to them, prostrate at their feet, the hand to be kissed, in token of benevolence and protection. They are beginning also to feel the pleasure of daily luxury at their table, not merely for themselves but for those who are admitted to partake of it. It is true that these invitations are yet uncommon: but this rarity originates in their want of a skilful cook rather than from personal self-denial; in a word, at a good table kept

kept at another's expence, seldom do we meet more convivial company. When the Roman shall be less enslaved by superstition, and shall obtain an education more in unison with that of his ancestors, of whom the recollection will be ennobled by contemplating the wonders of antient days, — inspired also by the purest sky, — he will obtain grand ideas, and a character open to the most liberal intercourse.'

This last sentence, we fear, is but a dream. The great are ambitious of supporting a numerous retinue of servants:

"*Maxima quæque domus servis est plena superbis:*"

but this luxury is principally due to visitors, by whose *buoné mani* it is supported. The custom, however, is giving way among them, owing to their intimacy with the French. — The education of females is here much neglected; and M. PETIT-RADEL yields the palm to those of Venice, in all the charms and arts of attraction. The custom of Cicisbeism, on which Time has so impressed his seal that frequently it was stipulated in a marriage-contract, is too deeply engrafted on the noble families to be removed but by an entirely new plan of education. "Science by no means hinders the Roman from sleeping" is become a proverb in Tuscany, which owes its origin not to any national hatred but to truth itself; and it applies with peculiar justice to the great, who devote themselves to sensual pleasures, and to a relaxation from all mental energy. They are even compelled to ask their librarian, or Cicerone, for the explanation of those very statues and pictures which form the pride of their palace; and, like eunuchs in a seraglio, they appear to appreciate only by hearsay the beauties that surround them. With the French taste for better cheer, the Romans have imbibed that of the promenade; and the Corso is crouded from noon until two or three o'clock, with all the brilliancy and circumstance of dress and equipage.

We now accompany the author to Naples.

'Naples is at present the only remarkable city in a country which was formerly covered with them, and which constituted what was termed *Magna Græcia*. The people who occupied it were governed by the laws given to them by Pythagoras; and so great was their celebrity, that Homer, Simonides, Pindar, Plato, Virgil, and other eminent characters, came thither to study the principles of pure philosophy. It was in those days the theatre of the arts and of industry; and commerce there found harbours on either shore. Time, however, has so exerted his powers in the destruction of this brilliant country, that Cicero, in his defence of Roscius, even then said of it, *Magna Græcia non est.*—Parthenope, which had been destroyed by its more antient and powerful neighbour Cumæ, was rebuilt, and, comprizing Palæopolis within its walls, assumed the name of Naples, obtained the protection of Augustus, and formed a part of the em-

pire. The rich inhabitants of Rome, attracted to Naples by the mildness of the climate, repaired to it, if not as settlers, at least to pass the winter in a spot where the rigors of that season are unfelt. Adrian and other Emperors contributed to the augmentation of its luxury. At the division of the empire, Naples formed a part of the West, although in its almost republican government it had its dukes, who were at times absolute and at times dependant on its municipal form. Thus continued the flourishing days of Naples, until Alaric King of the Goths, after having sacked Rome, marched his army under the walls of this city: but he left it untouched, and lanced his whole vengeance on Nola, which was almost utterly destroyed. Naples, however, was reserved for new misfortunes. Belisarius, in 536, gave it up to pillage; though afterward, repenting his cruelty, he himself contributed to its re-establishment. A new misfortune befell it in 546, when Totila laid siege to it, took it, and destroyed its walls. Lastly, after the death of the conqueror, who was assassinated at the foot of the Apennines, when he went forth to meet Narses, a Roman General, the city again returned beneath the power of the Emperors of the East, and remained faithful to the government under the exarchs of Ravenna. The Lombards in vain attacked it. The besieged braved the utmost to preserve their independence, and succeeded in their resolution.'

The author pursues his abridgment through the Saracenic age to the union of the Norman and Lombard conquerors, who repulsed the Saracens, and settled the succession on the Norman line. The Spanish dynasty brought with it new wars; and the courts of Austria, France, and Spain, all set up pretensions for this fair patrimony, until the full possession of it returned to the rightful family, in 1734, by the elevation of Don Carlos of Spain to the sovereignty. The decoration and paving of this capital, the forts established at proper distances, the palace of Capo di Monte, the theatre Santo Carlo, the quarters of the Cavalry, the labours at Herculaneum, and the rich public Monuments which adorn the city, were all the works of this master-mind. If happiness were in the power of one man to bestow, Naples would have been happy under this great prince! His successor, the most indolent of mankind, has been dethroned, and for a long time exiled in Sicily; —to return, we hope, for the purpose of imitating at this late period of his life the virtues of his ancestor.

To pass from the churches, palaces, and establishments of Naples, which unhappily suggest to the thinking mind any other ideas than those of real utility and solid glory, we present our readers with an extract which may be considered as a faithful picture of the streets of this great city, with the sort of characters and peculiar kind of bustle which give them animation. We must first remark, however, that in p. 16. of the third volume an error occurs in the calculation, to such an

extent that we can ascribe it only to the printing-office, and must exempt M. PETIT-RADEL from all supposition of blame in this instance. The last census is said to make the population amount to thirty-five or forty thousand souls; — instead of three hundred and fifty or four hundred thousand; which, in a circumference of nine miles, will form one of the largest populations to be found inclosed in the same space. We now hasten to the living picture of the streets of Naples:

'The position of Naples, and the little care observed in regulating its houses on any plan, give the streets not only an irregular appearance, but have caused that narrowness with which all are reproached; except the street of Toledo, which divides the city from the place Mercatello to the Royal Palace, and is in length about three quarters of a mile. The street Mont Olivetto, and that which, though more regular, is more narrow, extending from the gate of Capua to Saint Elmo, may also be exempted in a great degree from this objection. The others compel the passenger frequently to ascend and descend. They are paved with large basaltic flags, produced by the eruptions of Vesuvius: a mode of paving that is very convenient, as well for foot-passengers as for the carriages, which roll with the utmost rapidity over this resisting soil. The streets are filled with a noisy and gesticulating populace, ever in motion. Here are venders of fish, fruits, vegetables, and melons which are sold by the slice, the sellers being always provided with a large knife, and deafening the passenger by their clamorous invitations to purchase. There are the *aquaioli* or sellers of lemonade, surrounded by piles of lemons, who invite you at every corner by tilting a barrel full of iced water ready for drinking. Next is a beggar, who harasses you by his importunity, and from whom it is difficult to escape. Here are mendicant monks of all orders, who carry home their pittance to their convent, some in wallets, others on asses which they lead by a halter; — Capuchins and Franciscans, with their gowns tucked up, short fat figures who idly saunter along, and piously present their hands to be kissed by the poor; — priests in black mantles, with spectacles on their nose; — devotees who tramp along, some after having paid their vows, and others contented with a promise, which they revoke at convenience; — companies of women in black silk cloaks, with smart head-dresses, but destitute of shoe or stocking; — children who surround the sellers of maccaroni, in hopes of a few spoonsfull; — a rabble of infants screaming to their utmost; — jugglers, players on the bagpipe and hautbois, who jig their puppets by the leg; — walking virtuosi, who sing or play on the violin or harp, in a wretched manner, before the Madonnas of the streets, or before the shops; — soldiers and officers in caleshes or on foot; — barking dogs; — advocates and attorneys, with their parchments under their arm, hastening to the Vicaria; — processions, funerals, and oxen loaded with leathern panniers full of manure, which are taken to the gardeners in the suburbs. Such is a sketch of the picture of animation with which most of the streets of Naples are enlivened. The shops are closed late, and opened at the break of day; at which time every one fixes his stall in the street, even to

the end of December, without attention to the passengers who thus incommoded. The streets are cleaner than the porticos, stair-cases, and anti-chambers of the palaces; because the filth is into the sea by vast subterraneous sewers whenever rain falls. M streets are inhabited by artisans of the same trade; thus the s makers, ebonists, blacksmiths, coach-makers, &c. have each t streets allotted to them.

'The street Toledo is appropriated to grand processions, and masks at the time of Carnival; at which period, the traveller wil really convinced of the excess of jovial delirium that fills the Nea litan: who, forgetting all his Madonnas and acts of piety which cupied him through the year, then conducts himself like an ac madman. The streets, since the French dominion has been establish are lighted by reflecting lamps suspended in the centre: but form they received no light except from lamps placed by the pious be the Madonnas.'

The author's account of Herculaneum and Pompeii, a the labours undertaken and completed at these two cities other days, is clear and satisfactory: but these objects h been so often described, that we pass them over in order accompany him in his return; and, in this part of his work, arrests the attention by a well-deserved and strongly mark contrast of the Florentine and Genoese character, the lig and shade of this noble peninsula. Cloyed with the pleasu of Venice, and wearied by the majestic beauties of Rome a the delightful situations around Naples, the stranger arrives Florence, to enjoy that free communication which is the chie of society. In this city, blessed with local advantages, on t whole, above all others,—where even trade itself, which Genoa and elsewhere contracts the intellect and the heart, h converted the treasures which it has amassed to the protectio of genius,—talent has found a wider field in modern day than in any other part of Italy. No city, except Parm can vie with Florence in that universal urbanity of manner which is observable in every rank of men. Even without th means of entertaining at their table, the Florentines court th society of the stranger; and the great are distinguished by the amenity of manners, devoid of haughtiness, which, when co pied or perhaps equally inherited by the poorer classes, retain its charm unsullied by the ordinary grossness of plebeian minds In paying deference to those of higher rank, the poor of thi city appear to be uninfluenced by the hope of any reward beyond that of feeling that they render themselves the more agreeable to those whom they deem it an honour to please.— On the other hand, the Genoese character, or the shade of Italy, is well summed up under the delineation of their man- ners. The vain, false, ignorant, and vulgar Ligurian appear

to be what he has ever been; and, if any thing can soften our regret at the artifice by which they have lately been made over to the King of Sardinia, it is the consideration that any king or any form of government is good enough for a people so totally contemptible.

In taking leave of M. PETIT-RADEL, we should be unjust if we omitted to notice the air of benevolence and candour with which his work is conceived and expressed. Here are no puerile attempts at degrading a character which political circumstances and internal divisions have enfeebled, but which would rise with an elasticity proportionate to its present debasement, were the opportunity afforded for becoming itself once more. The Italians, and more especially those of the South, are Anti-gallican to a man; even those unhappy states which, by their disgusting incorporation with Austria, are now suffering the punishment of *Mezentius*,

"*Mortua quinetiam jungebat corpora vivis,*"

even those lively and ingenious people, now bound down *complexu horrendo* with lethargy itself, have such an aversion for the tyranny that is past, that they would fly back to it only to escape from the protection of Austria. Thus circumstanced, the Italian would say with Mercutio, "*A plague on both your Houses.*"

ART. VI. *Histoire des Republiques Italiennes*, &c.; *i. e.* The History of the Italian Republics of the middle Age. By J. C. L. SIMONDE DE SISMONDI. 8vo. 11 Vols. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 5l. 15s. 6d.

Two great men existed within the space of two centuries, during the night of Europe and of civilized society, whose respective virtues and talents appeared suddenly on a stage long deserted by excellence,—affixed a new character on their ages,—gave a new impulse to the feelings, manners, and institutions of the world,—and were essentially conducive to the re-establishment of the social order that gradually harmonized the different families of nations. It would, perhaps, be difficult to institute a comparision between two men so different, yet both so exalted, as *Charlemagne* and *Otho* of Germany: but it is by no means going too far to assert that, but for the appearance of the latter in the middle of the tenth century, the policy and civil institutions of the former would have crumbled to decay; leaving mankind once more in the darkness, and the governments of men in the uncertainty, of the worst of times.

So much has been said, by some with real and by many with only a desultory knowlege, of the feudal governments,

that it is not our intention to re-measure the ground so ably and so frequently trodden. The first and inestimable volume of the History of Charles the Fifth, considered as a comprehensive view, should be deemed the elementary grammar to the system; and, in yielding our conviction to it, we are not required to believe that feudality, unlike other general institutions, admitted of no deviations from the one grand outline; — that it was in Italy exactly as it was in Provence, or in Provence exactly as it appeared in France proper, or in the last country as in England. Differences undoubtedly existed in the institution itself; and this concession would do more to reconcile the incongruities of *Ducange* and *Muratori* than volumes of disquisition, or thousands of parchments unearthed from the oblivion in which they have slept.

Unhappily for the author and his reader, the permission which was accorded to M. SIMONDE DE SISMONDI, of visiting all the archives of the different Italian states, has been productive of disquisitions that are too long, and has led him to deviate from generalities which illustrate into those multiplied details which confound and bewilder. A wide distinction is always to be observed between the historian who compiles and digests, and the chronicler, who, dwelling at the fountain-head of events, relates them all as they occur, faithfully, and with interest for his contemporaries, but with a more partial interest for ages that are to come. *Froissart*, *Monstrelet*, *Philip de Comines*, and *Villani*, are inestimable as chroniclers, pourtraying to the life the manners, people, and events of their several days; and when read with the view of forming a personal acquaintance with their heroes, they are yet the most delightful companions of a winter-evening. The historian, however, who passes in review a number of centuries, who like Ulysses "has seen the cities and studied the manners of many men," is forbidden to cherish an affection for any age or race, but is required to proceed with unrelenting justice and continued investigation through various generations; and, undiverted from his route by partiality, to rest only at those few grand periods which stand as epochs in the world of events.

Impartiality, however, except in Livy, is not to be found in man, nor in the details of human transactions. The History of England by Hume has been aptly termed the history of English passions written by human wisdom: yet this human wisdom, so calm, so dispassionate, so equable in its ordinary tenor, had its bias; and that bias was so violent a hatred to war, and to those characters who are usually the heroes of history, that the grandest expedition of the Black Prince, viz. that which was undertaken at the head of the largest

largest army which he ever commanded, for the purpose of restoring Pedro the Cruel to his throne, is not even mentioned: while a certain proficiency in literature secures to James an honourable mention, and an elaborate apology. On the other hand, the bias of Gibbon, independently of unchristian feelings, was the sword. For him the sword was the wand of a genius which raises or depresses empires: liberty, security, property, were terms unknown to the creation of his volumes; force was their god; and if an interval on earth was unfilled by some of those conquerors, the exercisers of Divine justice, they have the appearance of soldiers without a leader, of citizens without a legislator, and of a family without a father.

Next to a certain prejudice for the moths and stains of forgotten archives, for the damp and rust of old days, which we have suggested above, we are now compelled to notice a fault inherent in this and any other book of which the object should be similar. This fault is the want of the unities which must belong to a work comprizing the detached histories of many independent republics without one preponderating head, whence power and action are to emanate. The historian of antient Rome had ever the one eternal city in view, from which all life and vigour were imparted to the farthest verge of the world which was within her grasp; and, although this unity is in some measure destroyed by the division of the empire in the more corrupt times, yet is it partially maintained by the usual preponderating influence of the East. The power of Greece was federative: but at the head of the federation rises Athens, and converts to herself the pen of the historian and the regards of all his readers. In the subject before us, all is equal; we discern no prominence; we recognize no one salient or exalted state, dispensing to the rest her mandates, covering them with her power, and receiving from them tokens of submission and gratitude for her protection. This defect, inseparable from the subject, meets the author at every turn, and baffles all his attempts to conquer or evade it.

The celebrated and glorious age of *Augustus* was the fatal epoch of the debasement of mankind, — of the extinction of courage, genius, and talent. That Emperor had the merit of reaping the fruits of liberty and of the republic: but five centuries of degradation and of ignominy were the consequence of the Augustan æra, and of the revolution effected by that great man in the government. Five more centuries of barbarism were requisite to obliterate among men the fatal lessons of despotism, to restore their energy, and to create among them the only elements that can constitute a nation.

'As far,' says M. DE SISMONDI, 'as we can be attached to the revolting history of a government that was despotic in its decline, we follow to its close that of the eastern empire. Italy is again sufficiently known from the sixteenth century. After the reign of Charles the Fifth, all the European states formed, as it were, one vast republic; of which the parts are so reciprocally connected together that it is impossible to disunite them, and confine ourselves to any one people: so that every man, in learning the history of his nation, becomes acquainted with that of the civilized world. These two periods, equally well known as far as they regard Italy, are separated by the middle age; a name expressly given to the ten centuries which elapsed between the fall of Rome and that of Constantinople. The history of Italy in the middle age, in those times which the greatest historian of our day (*Johannes Muller*) has called the age of unnoticed merit, is intended to form the subject of this work.'

This middle age is made by the author to commence in the year 476; the period at which *Odoacer*, having consigned to death the patrician *Orestes*, and reduced to captivity the Emperor Augustulus, put an end to the eastern empire. This history closes in 1530, at the capture of Florence by the army which the Emperor and the Pope had formed in concert to destroy this last of the republics of the middle age, in order to erect on its ruins the dynasty of the dukes of Medicis. At nearly the same period, the three Italian republics, which prolonged their existence beyond the middle age, changed their constitution; and liberty was no more in Italy.

Blessed with a new youth, however, by strengthening her decrepitude with the vigorous admixture of northern nations, awakened to a sense of liberty that had long been a stranger to the climate, most jealous of its preservation, and recalled to energy by the hard and severe training of barbarism and misfortune, Italy, after having long been regarded merely as a weak and defenceless province of the Roman empire, not only became a nation but a nursery of nations. She counted as many people as she counted cities, and every city was free and republican in its government; each of these cities of Piedmont, of Lombardy, of the Venetian, Roman, and Tuscan states, deserves its history apart, and can produce archives peculiar to itself. It is even true that nobler characters arose, during the period in question, to adorn these several states than in the great monarchies, condemned as they were, in the same epochs, to indolence and oblivion. We cannot, however, take up this book, interesting in all respects from its contents, without again and again lamenting the dispersion of its elements, and the want of that one magnet of superiority in some individual city or people, which alone could

could make it a single and concentrated history. Fatigued as we have been in attempting to call together the scattered parts, and, like the author himself, confounded in the vanity of an useless effort, we will endeavour to follow him through ages of remorseless barbarism and devastation, to the first dawn of light which is the commencement of his æra.

The noble Romans, under the last Emperors, appeared no longer susceptible of any grand or generous passion; they sought not distinction in arms, nor in letters, nor in virtues. If, in the wretched histories of these times, their names occur, it is only to inform us of how many precious vases, of how many costly stuffs, or of how many slaves, they had been plundered by the sturdy barbarians. For themselves they lived, and they passed away without leaving a single trace that they once had been. The rest of the nation, yet more cowardly and contemptible, disappears totally from our researches.—In perusing the annals of these weak and wicked reigns, we have need of a continued self-recollection to tell us that we are reading of the Empire of the West: but, if this change excite our surprize, it still must yield in wonder to the revolution which again took place, from base and effeminate to warlike and enterprizing, which once more became the character of the Italians at the period when *Otho* obtained the crown of Italy. The five ages, however, during which the new-casting of the human race was effected, are lost in impenetrable darkness. Goths, Lombards, and Franks, incorporate themselves successively on the subject-Italians; and all was devastation, except in that short breathing time when *Theodoric*, uniting in himself the virtues of civilization and of barbarism, converted both to the happiness and regeneration of his empire. The dominion of the Goths lasted only sixty-four years; and it was long before the Lombards, who succeeded to them, imitated their predecessors in the conquest by uniting themselves with the conquered. "We Lombards," says *Liutprand*, "in common with the Saxons, Franks, Lorranians, Bavarians, Suabians, and Burgundians, entertain such a contempt for the Roman name, that, in our anger, we can invent no term of greater ignominy for our enemies than to call them Romans. In that single name we comprize every thing that is ignoble, timid, avaricious, luxurious, or lying,—in a word, *every vice*." The empire of *Charlemagne*, established by acclamation on Christmas-day in the year 800, crumbled gradually to pieces under the hands of his successors. His subjects belonged not to his nation, but to his person; he appeared alone on the stage; his paladins exist but in romances; and on his death in 814 his family preserved only

for

for 63 years the monarchy that he had founded. To the Carlovingian race succeed, before the close of the 9th century, the Saracenic and Hungarian conquests; and to the desultory and relentless warfare of these barbarians, are owing the defences and bulwarks which the inhabitants found it necessary to throw around their cities. Before these expeditions, all the Italian cities were open and unprotected; they took no interest in the government; they had no military; and they even claimed too little consideration to imagine that they had a country: but, when they were reduced to defend themselves by their own force against a system of plunder which extended over all the country, without the advantage of support from any army, their abandoned situation suggested the necessity of raising walls and ramparts, of forming a militia, and of electing magistrates. The inferior orders of the people were thus in turn called into action, and, by exerting themselves, acquired that energy of character which was to render them worthy of the name and functions of citizens. It is evident that the barons, grossly ignorant as they were in the times of which we are speaking, were not quite blind to all the effects of these multiplied securities.

The jealousies of *Berenger* and *Lothaire* induced the Lombards to call in the assistance of *Otho* the Great against the former; and from this time we date the union of Italy with the German empire. *Otho*, entering Italy in the year 951, set at liberty *Adelaïde*, widow of *Lothaire*, (whom *Berenger* was suspected to have poisoned,) married her, and caused himself to be crowned King of Lombardy. No revolution had a more marked influence over the character of a nation, its constitution, and future destiny, than the union of the two crowns of Germany and Lombardy effected with regard to the Italians; and, if the historical records of the tenth and eleventh centuries were sufficient for us to trace from that epoch the history of the cities, we should commence it with the reign of the *Othos*. To the munificence and policy of these Princes, they owed their municipal constitution and the first germs of a republican spirit; the distance of the court gave them the habitude of independence; and, when the family of *Otho* was extinct, the wars excited by pretenders to the crown gave the citizens experience in battle, and the right of combating beneath their own banners.

'Compelled,' says M. Simonde, 'by the barrenness of historians who are our guides, to leave in the shade those times that are imperfectly known, we shall continue, in the following chapters, to indicate only the influence of the great revolutions of the monarchy on the national constitution and manners of the people. We shall

shall collect afterward, separately, the little light which remains to us concerning some republics, of which the enfranchisement takes date from the time that we have described; commencing only with the 12th century to study the interior of the cities, and to follow closely and in detail their generous efforts in the cause of liberty.'

We direct our readers to the above recapitulation, that they may judge for themselves of the degree 'of unnoticed merit' yet lost to us by the failure of history to delineate these benighted times; and to shew how much more easy it is to suppose, than to find, any interest in a mere succession of atrocities and horrors. During the greater part of this time, public spirit was so completely extinguished, that twenty Saracens were permitted to establish themselves quietly at Frassinetto, and, surrounded by warlike but independent and disunited barons, to await the arrival of re-inforcements.

The constitution which *Otho* the Great gave to the Italians, after having subdued the kingdom of *Berenger*, was of all others the most adapted to preserve to the monarch his authority during the long absences which the administration of his German states made necessary. Before the invention of troops of the line, — before it was discovered that free men would consent to sell their volition as well as their arms for pay, — despotism could have no regular and durable establishment. The ascendancy of a great man, when insured by his presence, brought every thing down to his authority; more particularly if this ascendancy were seconded by ideas of duty and of gratitude: but, in his absence, the sentiment of personal interest regained its empire, and the obedience of the inferior was exactly proportioned to the benefit which he expected to derive from public order. *Otho* had led into Italy a strong army, but it was feudal; every officer, in virtue of his barony, was held to service for an appointed time; and every knight was obliged, during the same time, to follow his baron, from whom he had received a knight's tenure. After the expedition, the army had the right and the desire of returning to their homes. If *Otho* had determined on fixing in Italy some great chieftain, with troops, he would have been compelled to assign lands to him and his vassals, and to grant him the plunder of a province for the support of foreigners; and such an expedient, by raising enemies against him, would certainly have ill suited a monarch who was absent from his kingdom. If he had contented himself with appointing governors to provinces, without oppressing the inhabitants, they must have supported themselves, destitute as they were of troops, by the affections of the people alone. If, again, he placed confidence in the Italian barons,

barons, he remained at their mercy in proportion to his distance still more than his predecessors had done.

'Yet *Otho* was powerful, and covered with glory: during the four years which he had employed in subjecting the kingdom of Lombardy, at the head of a warlike army, he had every where held his sceptre with vigour; always victorious over the barbarians whom he had combated, superior to the rebellions of his subjects and of his son himself, cherished by his soldiers, and respected by the clergy although he had deposed two pontiffs, and fettered the whole church. The strength of his character, which led him to form a decided judgment that was not to be moved, and always to aim at great things, added farther to his power; but with all his power he would have been unable to preserve to himself despotic authority beyond the moment at which he had repassed the mountains. Indeed he was too wise and too great to undertake it, and availed himself, on the contrary, of his power to lay the foundations of liberty.

'The cities had hitherto been governed by their Counts, who in many instances were also their prelates; and who, being almost all Italians, were but little devoted to the Emperor. Yet he neither dispossessed them, nor, by any formal act, limited their prerogatives; but he encouraged the cities to set bounds to their authority, and to extend their immunities. The Count, like the King, was unprovided with regular troops; and, to execute his orders in a populous city trained to arms, alone against a multitude, his only resource was to conciliate the affections of the citizens by giving up his prerogatives; or to call in the authority of the King, who was indisposed to favour his pretensions.

'Left, therefore, in a great degree to themselves, the cities assumed, with the assent of the Emperor, a municipal form of government; and these constitutions were established during the reigns of *Otho* the Great and his descendants without opposition, without tumult, and without the attestation of any charter to their legitimacy: so that their antiquity is proved only by the prescription which the cities alleged in after-times, whenever any attempt was made to contest their privileges. The new municipalities preserved for their benefactor, *Otho* the Great, a feeling of gratitude which lived as long as his family; they thought not of liberating themselves entirely from the yoke of the Germans, until the last *Otho* died without children; and then they saw themselves disengaged, by this event, from every connection with the house of Saxony.'

M. DE SISMONDI has affixed to this portion of his history, which may justly be esteemed the second epoch, as the conquest of *Charlemagne* will stand foremost, a chronological table of the reign of the first German emperors, with their expeditions into Italy, for the purpose of convincing his readers how small a part they took in the government of that country. With the death of *Otho* III. in 1002, in the flower of his days, was extinguished the Saxon dynasty, after having extended for forty years over Italy united to Germany; and the civil war excited

excited by the election of his successor gave the Italian cities an occasion of trying their strength, and gaining assurance that they needed no protector.

Pavia and Milan, no longer united under one government, became the rival capitals, as their kings became the discordant governors of Lombardy. This jealousy, common to all cities nearly of a size, and not subject to some one preponderating metropolis, gave birth to devastating incursions on the borders of each other. All were exercised in arms; all abandoned themselves to the hatred which they felt for their neighbours; all were accustomed to regard their country as inclosed within the circumference of their own city-walls; and they rather adopted the name of King to justify their quarrels, than espoused the cause of the monarchs for whom they appeared to combat. Not only did the cities engage in these acts of rapine, but, whenever the monarch was absent, the barons availed themselves of their fastnesses to commit every possible outrage on the estates of their neighbours; and a general confusion and universal ruin of the country were the consequences of these private wars.

'The ravage which accompanied these disputes of the nobles was rather suspended than repressed, during *Conrad*'s reign, by the exhortations of some pious men; who pretended, or perhaps really believed, that Heaven had revealed to them that God had commanded men of every persuasion to observe a truce for four days in the week, viz. from the first hour of Thursday to the first hour of Monday. All men, whatever fault they had committed, were then to be free to exercise their several employments; and temporal and spiritual punishments were to fall on every person who, during the *truce of God*, exercised any vengeance on any of their enemies or those of the state. This peace was preached for the first time in 1033, by the Bishops of Arles and Lyons, and was about the same time introduced into Italy: but it never obtained there a complete establishment. The Italians were, of all Christians, the least superstitious, and the least disposed to believe in an order said to emanate from Heaven.'

During the greater portion of time under consideration, Rome was yet nominally at least a province of the eastern empire. Although surrounded by Lombards, it remained secure in its sacred majesty. The Pope was acknowleged in Constantinople the seat of government; and the people, little indebted to the Greek Emperor and unacquainted with his person, naturally conferred on his representative the honours which he himself was not present to claim. In the eighth century, however, a revolution was operating which had the most durable influence not only over Rome but over all the east. The reformation, or, as the western church would call it, the heresy of the Iconoclasts, alienated the Latin subjects from their Greek sovereigns;

sovereigns; it engaged the Popes in destroying the authority of the Emperors over Rome, of which they were the representatives; and it was the primary cause both of independence to the city and of sovereignty to the church.

Religion, which, in proportion as it flowed farther from its source, became more polluted by its admixture with worldly pomps and ceremonies, had now boldly adopted, under a change of names, all that was was essential in Paganism. This most remarkable change was the consequence of a pretended discovery of images of Jesus Christ and of the Virgin, which were attributed to a heavenly artist, and declared to be ἀχειροποιητοι, since no human art could have framed their equals. These images, after having been themselves the work of a miracle, were soon used as the instruments by which miracles were effected. They gained victories over the enemies of religion and the state; they repulsed the Persians from the walls of Edessa; they cured the infirm; and they speedily obtained for themselves all the honours of divinity. Other images, from other origins, intruded on their exclusive rights; Christianity retrograded to polytheism; statues and images were acknowleged to contain in themselves something divine; and they were honoured, not as representations, but independently and on account of their own inherent virtues; — a degree of worship exceeding Pagan grossness. As Islamism was founded about the same period, whose essence it is to reject all resemblances of the divinity, idolatry was no sooner introduced than it was exposed by these zealous enemies to the Christian faith: but, besides exposing idolatry, the Mussulmans conquered many nations of idolatrous Christians; they put to flight the miraculous Labarum; they took Edessa in defiance of its boasted images; they dispersed and destroyed altars, with their images and pictures; and the eastern Christians, who had most witnessed the inefficacy of these powerless figures, were the foremost to make reflections unfavourable to their cult. *Leo*, the first iconoclast, was the chief of one of those mountaineer tribes which, secure in their fastnesses, preserved the religion of their ancestors pure and undefiled in Asia Minor; and, when promoted to the throne of Constantinople he signalized his reign by a most violent attack on the new superstitions, the worship of images, and the progress of monastic idlers. The schism gained ground, and was rendered irremediable by a refusal on the part of the Romans to pay the customary tributes to an Emperor who was the apostle of the iconoclasts. At the same time, Ravenna and other states opened their gates to *Liutprand* king of the Lombards, and all Italy was lost to the Grecian dynasty, except

except a few maritime cities of *Magna Græcia.* The Pope, indeed, had for a considerable time been considered by his flock, the Roman people, as their defender against the tyranny of the eastern Emperors. A long succession of virtuous pontiffs had merited this consideration; and, as we have remarked in a former Number, his consequence was augmented by the consideration that he was a Roman, and that all beyond the Alps or across the seas were barbarians. These were the feelings of antient and more worthy times; and, from a mixture of such feelings with the pontifical grandeur, arose by slow degrees the exorbitant claims to pre-eminence that were assumed by later and more arrogant bishops of Rome. When *Otho* the Great entered Italy, while all the principal lay-fiefs were extinct or divided, the richest cities and most populous provinces were possessed by the clergy. At this epoch, the first and most powerful ecclesiastical sovereigns were the patriarch of Aquileia, the archbishops of Milan and Ravenna, the bishops of Placentia, Lodi, Asti, Bergamo, &c. &c. all of whom had obtained by charter the jurisdiction of the city in which their see was fixed. Uniting in themselves so much temporal and spiritual power, and alone possessed of the rude jargon which passed for learning in their day, it is not surprising that they should have been selected as the ministers and advisers of kings.

After the death of *Charlemagne*, the Saracens, perceiving the weakness of the immense monarchy which was crumbling to pieces of itself, commenced their ravages on the maritime provinces of Italy. Danger and desolation from an enemy would in course produce its effect on the conclave in their election of a Pope; and consequently the Popes of those days were as frequently elected for their valour and dexterity in war, as for their more paternal and saintly excellences. Thus John X., first brought into notice by Theodora for his beauty, was promoted to the pontificate and supported himself thereby defeating the Saracens, who were encamped on the banks of the Garigliano. All breathed war and defiance; and the massive piles of the old Romans, built as aqueducts, tombs, and mausoleums, were converted into fortresses.

That the Popes of those days were not wholly engrossed by their paternal cares for the people, we may infer from a letter addressed by *Otho* the Great to Pope John XII., "Know that you are accused, not by a small number, but by all, by men of your own order as well as by seculars, of having committed homicide, perjury, sacrilege, and incest with two sisters your near relations. They add that, at table, you have toasted the health of the Devil; that at the gaming-table you have invoked the

cour of Jupiter, Venus, and other demons," &c.—
osed two Popes. Indeed, during the short period of
c ascendancy, the holy fathers were nominated by the
:s, or deposed if elected without this formality; and
sion of crimes committed by the Popes so exasperated
nans against the sacerdotal power, that many ages
cessary to recall their reverence. While they were
in subverting this arrogant and upstart power, the
nations who were removed from the scene, and revered
:y did not understand, were the supporters of a power
soon to drain them of their riches, and drag them
hameful servitude. Greece had withdrawn herself
eir dominion in religious matters; and, when the
earth seemed sick of them, the German Emperors
iarchs of the north became their only support, and
countries their richest treasury.

: period of this universal abandonment of the south,
:. Hildebrand acquired celebrity, and by the austerity
ianners was deemed worthy of being opposed to a
sness which threatened the destruction of the papacy.
IX. had already, by the suggestions of Hildebrand,
marriage to be incompatible with the pastoral duties.
the pontificate under the name of Gregory VII. in 1073,
y monk claimed the right of investiture of benefices,
the real presence, and made the Emperor Henry IV.
o degradations which the refuse of mankind would
ndure in modern times. This sudden exaltation of
ı character of pontiff forms an epoch in history.
re servility of Europe to the court of Rome may be
a great measure from the violences practised on cre-
Hildebrand, first in the lowly character of monk and
when in possession of the pontificate; and in the
rt of the eleventh century were sown the seeds of
nd intolerance, which sprang up equally in almost
ıropean clime, and of which the malignant effects
yet exhausted themselves, even in an age when non-
omes the more glaring and disgusting from its com-
rith sound philosophy and just argument. In the
of maxims known by the name of *Dictatus Papæ*,
e been preserved to our days in the ecclesiastical annals,
ıle mind must be astonished to observe the audacity
:h Gregory throws off the mask. "There is but
in the world," says Gregory, "that of the Pope;
; intitled to wear imperial ornaments, and all princes
to kiss his feet; he alone has the power of naming
ng bishops, of convoking, presiding over, and dis-
solving

solving councils; no person can call him to account; his simple election makes him a saint; he has never erred, and never for the future shall he err; he has the power of deposing princes, and releasing subjects from the oath of fidelity," &c. Here M. SIMONDE observes:

'But Gregory did not live long enough to witness the success of his ambitious projects. Henry IV., having re-entered Italy in 1081, had opposed to Gregory an anti-pope in Gilbert, Archbishop of Ravenna, who took the name of Clement III. Having at different times besieged Rome, Henry at length succeeded in taking it in 1084, and caused his anti-pope to be consecrated; from whom, in turn, he received the imperial crown, while Gregory had shut himself up within the mole of Adrian. The Romans had united themselves to Henry to besiege their pontiff; when Robert Guiscard, chief of the Normans, advancing with a considerable army, repulsed Henry, burned Rome, from the church of St. John de Latran as far as the Colysæum, and reduced to slavery a great portion of its inhabitants. Since this sacking of Rome by the Normans, the antient city has been almost deserted, and the population has removed entirely beyond the Capitol, to that part which was formerly known by the name of the *Campus Martius*. — Guiscard, after having inflicted on Rome all the horrors of the presence of barbarians, withdrew, and took with him the Pope to Salerno.'

Gregory died in this captivity: but his successors, Victor III., Urban, Paschal, and Gelasius II., appeared all to be animated with the same spirit. While the Romans united their vengeance with that of Henry IV. to crush their wicked and imperious pontiffs, the diet of Mayence, composed of northern ecclesiastics, leagued themselves with Paschal, cited the Emperor to appear before them, accused him of having inflicted injuries on the church of God, stripped him of his insignia, and, imitating their master the Pope in insolence, reduced him to the necessity of begging bread and a shelter at the church of Spires, which had been built and endowed by himself. In 1115, died the Countess Matilda, by whose will the Popes succeeded to the immense inheritance which formed their temporal power in Italy. It was at first seized by Henry V., and was the subject of litigation and contest during the whole of the 12th century, between the Emperors and the Popes: but it was at last settled on the see of St. Peter, and became a solid support to a power hitherto existing by artifice alone.

We now come to the southern part of Italy; and here, too, we encounter little else than proofs of the feebleness of the Greeks, who attempted to hold this favoured country against the fierce inroads of Lombards, Saracens, and Normans. Defeated in the field, and trusting rather to the advantages of an unassailable situation than to their own resources, they

gradually abandoned their more exposed positions; having thrown a garrison into Ravenna, they sought shelter behind the marshes that surround that city; and hence the greater part of southern Italy was, after a few unsuccessful struggles, subjected to the dynasty of the Lombard princes. The name of Lombardy is erroneously supposed to denote only the settlements of the Longobardi in the north of Italy, with Pavia and Milan for their capitals; whereas the real Lombardy, that in which the power of the nation was most extended, and where their kings succeeded each other for five centuries, consisted of the country and dependencies of modern Naples, with Beneventum for the focus of their power.—The Lombards, at length rendered more effeminate by the climate, and by mixture with the natives of *Magna Græcia*, were subdued by Charlemagne; Saracens succeeded in ravaging these fair countries; and they in turn were repulsed by the Normans, who, under the semblance of friends and defenders, conquered for themselves settlements in Campania in the eleventh century. After a short space of time, the Saracenic Emirs, who yet governed the different provinces of Sicily, were compelled to quit their governments by these new invaders; and the Norman domination was at length universally received in the south.

'Among the republics which have flourished in Italy, the most illustrious is that of Venice: it is almost the only republic of which the history is known out of that country; and her duration has been the longest. Her origin precedes by seven centuries the enfranchisement of the Lombard cities; and her fall, which we have witnessed, is posterior, by nearly three centuries, to the subjection of Florence, the most interesting republic of the middle age.

'Venice, so long independent and free, beheld, as a spectacle, the revolutions of the universe. She witnessed the expiring agonies of the close of the Roman empire;—the birth of the French empire in the conquest of the Gauls by Clovis;—the rise and fall of the Ostrogoths in Italy; of the Visigoths in Spain; of the Lombards who succeeded to the first, and of the Saracens who dispossessed the second;—the commencement of the empire of the caliphs; its menace of the conquest of the world, and afterward its own division and destruction. Long allied to the Emperors of Byzantium, she by turns succoured and oppressed them;—she has borne off trophies from their capital, divided their provinces, and united to her titles that of mistress of three parts of the Roman world. She has seen that empire fall, and the fierce Mussulmans rise on its ruins; she has seen the French monarchy crumble to pieces; and, alone immoveable, that proud republic contemplated the ruins of empires which passed before her. After all the rest, she has in turn fallen; and the people who connected the present with the past, and the two epochs of the civilization of the universe, have also ceased to exist.'

The

The duration of a small state, prolonged through so many centuries, is apparently the best eulogy of its government and people: but, in tracing its causes, we must allow that Venice owed her security not less to her situation than to the spirit and virtue of her inhabitants. The Adriatic gulph receives all the waters that flow from the southern descent of the Alps, from the Po, which takes its source at the back of the Provençal mountains, to the Lisonzo which rises from those of Carniola. The mouth of the more southern of these rivers is about thirty leagues distant from that of the northern, and in this space the sea receives the Adige, Brenta, Piave, Livenza, the Tagliamento, and an infinite number of little streams. Each of these carries down, in the rainy season, enormous masses of mud and gravel; and thus that part of the gulph into which they are emptied, choaked up gradually by their deposits, is neither land nor sea, but is called *Laguna*. It consists of a vast extent of shallows, and of mud, covered by water to the depth of about two feet, navigable only for the lightest boats, and intersected by natural canals formed by the currents of the rivers, which are kept up by human industry for the benefit of commerce. These canals, of which the courses are unknown to all but to the Venetian seamen, become an impenetrable labyrinth to the mariners of every other country; and, commanded as they are by a number of islets, they defend the city and the continent from any attempt of an enemy. Such is the position of one part of Venice. The inhabitants of the *Terra Firma*, more happy in the advantages of a fertile soil and the riches of agriculture, were the proprietors of the continental part of the Venetian states; and hence arose the terms *Venetia prima* and *secunda*, the former to denote the continental and the latter to signify the insular Venetians. Under the government of the Emperors, the *first Venice* merited more than once a place in history by its misfortunes; and placed immediately on the route by which the German, Scythian, and Sclavonian nations penetrated into Italy, it had reason to envy the happy obscurity of the *second Venice*, which was protected by its situation from similar devastation. When these inroads became more frequent, the inhabitants of the continent fled to the isles; and the rich, having by degrees accustomed themselves to a new kind of life, consented to abandon their continental estates, and to build their palaces at Rialto, which was as it were the nucleus of Venetian independence. Thus, from a mere asylum, the *Laguna* became a fixed residence of the more wealthy and intelligent inhabitants of the *Venetia prima:* to whom their situation suggested commercial enterprize as a succedaneum for the revenues produced by agriculture. Fresh irrup-

tions of barbarians brought new settlers from the exposed provinces: the more opulent guests were induced by the security in which their hosts lived to establish themselves in the same situation; and from the poorer class, the more promising in health, strength, and activity, were allured by greater gain to embrace the maritime instead of the agricultural life. The little burgh of Rialto appears to have received, with the fugitives from Padua, (which had been burned to the ground,) her consuls and tribunes, and other forms of Roman government. Untouched by the Lombards, but menaced by that people from the continent and by Sclavonians by sea, the Venetians, in a general assembly convened in 697 at Heraclea, elected a Doge or Duke, whose office it was to direct the forces of the state against external and internal enemies.

The Venetians boast with reason of their pure descent from the Romans; since, equally hostile to Huns, Ostrogoths, Lombards, and Franks, they were unpolluted by any mixture of barbarians. Rialto became the capital of the new state; the sixty islands that surround it were united by bridges to this first island; and over the whole of this space the present city extends. The ducal palace was erected on the spot on which it now stands; and the name of Venice, which belonged to the whole republic, was assumed by the capital. Twenty years afterward, the body of Saint Mark was transferred (according to their legends) from Alexandria to this city; and it is related that the merchants, who carried off this relic from the Egyptian church, adroitly substituted the body of Saint Claude, for whom they had less veneration. From this time, Saint Mark was deemed the patron of the republic; his lion became the impression on its coin, and the standard of its arms; his name was at length so identified with that of the state, that it has a charm for Venetian ears superior to that of the republic or of its victories; and the mention of it will bring tears into the eyes of every good Venetian.

About the same time that Venice was laying the foundations of her power on the Adriatic side of Italy, the less interesting republics of Genoa and Pisa began to shake off the yoke which had long oppressed them; developing the first germs of that power which was destined in some degree to counterbalance the Venetian, and by a long and bloody rivalry to make the Italians masters of the seas.

Thus the new revolution was accomplished; and, of the northern and southern races of Europe united, were formed, with the exception of Venice, new states and a new order of things. The conquerors brought energy and the conquered brought sensibility to the work of improvement. The people

of

of the north possessed liberty without a country to attach them; while those of the south had a country which claimed all their affections, but were strangers to that liberty which should have called forth their energies in its defence. Language, it is true, suffered by the introduction of auxiliary verbs, and the profuse usage of articles, those unworthy substitutes for the change of termination by which the antients expressed their times and cases. The nobles, derived principally from Germany, adhered for some time to the jargon of their ancestors: but their children were usually instructed by monks in the Latin tongue. Imperceptibly, one common dialect leavened the mass of each individual state; and one common language, subject only to the divisions produced by dialects, was spoken throughout the extent of the peninsula.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VII. *Histoire de l'Ambassade*, &c.; *i. e.* A History of the French Embassy to the Grand Duchy of Warsaw in 1812, by M. DE PRADT, Archbishop of Mechlin, at that time Ambassador at Warsaw. 5th Edition, revised and corrected. 8vo. pp. 278. Paris. 1815.

ON the other side of the channel, this publication has been circulated very extensively, not on account of any merit in the composition, which is loose and irregular, but of the interest resulting from the disclosure of matters connected with the official situation of the writer. M. DE PRADT alleges that he prepared his manuscript while *Bonaparte* was on the throne, and wishes the public to give him credit for a very different share of independence and courage from that which it allows to those who raised the note of reprobation after the fall of the usurper. The fact, however, is that *Bonaparte*, having found his clerical diplomatist deficient in the qualities most requisite for his situation, dismissed him from his service in a very unceremonious manner; and M. DE P., who no doubt thought that his talents were equal to those of *Richelieu* or *Mazarin*, determined in consequence to tell his wrongs to the world, and to announce that he had always disapproved the violent measures of his master: but he forgets to explain how it happened that he, being so virtuous and disinterested a character, should find himself in the enjoyment of several lucrative places at that corrupt court; or by what accident a dignitary of the church had gained favour in the eyes of Napoleon by taking a part in the well known quarrel with the Pope. Our readers will soon perceive in what complacent terms this reverend functionary is pleased to speak of his own proceedings:

at present, we shall waive our comments, and shall take up the narrative at its outset, viz. the departure of the French Emperor for the Russian campaign of 1812.

Bonaparte quitted Paris on the 9th of May, M. DE PRADT and some of the court following him on the next day. On conversing at Metz with the departmental Prefect, with whom Napoleon had passed a part of the preceding evening, M. DE P. found that his Imperial master had chosen to hold a very confident language: "*Je vais mettre à cheval toute la Pologne: — oui, toute la Pologne; seize millions de Polonois.*"

'I arrived at Dresden,' continues the author, 'on the 17th of May, after a most fatiguing journey, the ordinary lot of those who follow in the suite of *Bonaparte:* all of whom, whether males or females, must continue to travel, night and day, like so many couriers. At Dresden, we saw him in all his splendour, receiving the visits of the neighbouring princes, of the King of Prussia, and even of the Empress of Austria. It was amusing to observe the humble deportment of the vassals, and the artful condescension occasionally shewn by their master.'

M. DE PRADT received on this occasion marks of attention which surprized him, *Bonaparte* inquiring particularly about his health, and expressing his concern lest it should have suffered from the fatigue of the journey. This unusual complaisance he soon found to be a prelude to the disclosure of the intention of sending him ambassador to Warsaw, which was soon afterward communicated in a private audience:

'On the 24th or 25th of May, he sent for me after mass; and, having again inquired about the state of my health, he explained his intentions concerning me: but it was only from the Duke of *Bassano* (*Maret*) that I learned the real nature and object of my mission. The Emperor merely spoke of sending me into Poland. "Go, I will make a trial of you. — You know well that it is not to say mass that I have brought you hither. An immense establishment will be necessary. Shew attention to the women; it is a point of consequence in that country. — You ought to know Poland; you have read *Rhulières*. I, for my part, go to fight the Russians; it is high time. By the end of September, we ought to have finished; perhaps time has been already lost. I am tired of this place: — for a whole week I have been employed in dancing attendance on the Empress of Austria." — To some observations that I made on the conduct proper to be held towards Poland, in reference to the partitioning powers lately become his allies, he replied in a manner rather vague, but so as to be well understood, that, after having settled with Russia, it was his intention to engage with Austria, in order to make her either accept Illyria or be satisfied without it: distinctly adding that he did not as yet know to whom he should give the kingdom of Poland, when restored to its antient limits. He then proceeded, "I am going to Moscow: one or two battles will decide the business: the Emperor

Emperor Alexander will fall on his knees; I will burn Thoula; *voila la Russie desarmée.* They expect me there; Moscow is the heart of the empire; besides, I intend to carry on the war with the blood of the Poles. I will leave 50,000 French in Poland. I will make a Gibraltar of Dantzic. I will give two millions of yearly subsidy to the Poles; they have no money, but I am rich enough to do that. Without Russia, the continental system is a nullity. Spain costs me very dear; were it not for her, I should be master of Europe. When this is accomplished, my son will have only to adhere to the system; and *il ne faudra pas être bien fin pour cela.* Go and wait on *Maret.*" — This is, word for word, his conversation; important only for the light which it throws on his plans. Throughout the whole, were mingled expressions of satisfaction with my services; — a species of praise which he knows well how to give when his interest requires it, but which he can retract with a vengeance in his days of passion, — I mean on those occasions when the only epithets that he bestows are those of "fool" or "idiot."'

M. DE PRADT declares, (p. 59.) in his usual spirit of modest pretension, that he was always averse to the Russian expedition; the result of which, he says, he had sufficient sagacity to foresee. Nay, he was in great distress on receiving his instructions as ambassador at Warsaw. 'Never,' he says, 'can I describe my sensations when, after having crossed the Elbe, I traversed the dark forest on the other side. Such was my melancholy, that every tree seemed to me a cypress. I felt all the ties of my affections dissolved, and my heart in a manner torn by the cruelty of my situation.' — Yet, though in so dismal a state of feeling, he found means to *do wonders* at Warsaw:

'My clerks had not arrived, and all business rested for a time on my shoulders. Its pressure was such that I cannot yet conceive how I was able to go through with it, and it seems as if I must have sunk under it a hundred times. Yet I managed so that *nothing languished, nothing was in arrear.* From the 20th of June to the 27th of December, the day of my departure, I was not absent from a single sitting of the council; I did not fail in a single visit of importance; the whole political machine was kept in order, and performed its part with surprizing accuracy.'

We suppose that we must class among these hyperbolical effusions of vanity the assertion (p. 85.) that the duchy of Warsaw, which was under M. DE P.'s guidance, furnished so many as 85,000 combatants to the Russian war, at a time when the efforts of the rest of Poland were too trifling to deserve notice. How, in fact, is it possible that such a body of men should be armed and equipped in a country almost devoid (see M. R. Vol. lix. p. 522.) of the advantages of civilization? The policy of *Bonaparte* was to make the Poles come forwards in their own cause; to exhibit them as extremely desirous of

the recovery of their independence; and to take credit with *them* as its assertor, while to the rest of the world, and particularly to Austria, he pretended to moderate the rising spirit, and to assist in confirming that power in the possession of the provinces assigned to her by the partition-treaty of 1796. In pursuance of the first-mentioned object, he said to the Polish deputies at Posen, "Adopt whatever measures you deem proper; go as far, both in word and deeds, as you chuse; I put no restraint on you." In consequence, at the diet convened at Warsaw in the end of June, the re-establishment of the antient independence of Poland was distinctly brought forwards; a measure adopted by M. DE PRADT in conformity with his instructions, although *Bonaparte* was so wedded to concealment and indirect methods as to disapprove of this proceeding. The writer says, 'The Duke of *Bassano*, on receiving a copy of the address issued on the opening of the Polish diet, was highly gratified, and even went so far as to call it "a chosen morsel of eloquence." But I was much mortified on opening the Duke's next letter to read the following passage: "I was at first in raptures with the address: but the Emperor does not approve it, and I must confess that he is in the right. He says that it would have been better to have given an address composed by an old Pole, and written in a bad style, but a style evidently Polish."'

It was next proposed to send a deputation from Warsaw to Wilna, to express the wishes of the Polish nation; and it is curious to find that the speech given to the world as the spontaneous effusion of a free assembly was *fabricated three times over*: the first draught being by a Polish nobleman, the second by M. DE PRADT, who altered it entirely, and the third by *Bonaparte* himself, who cut down the performance of his ambassador and substituted an abrupt harangue, of which one of the principal passages was, "Speak, and sixteen millions of Poles will rise in arms." The public answer given by *Bonaparte* to the deputation bore all the marks of his habitual art. He professed admiration of the efforts of the Poles, but dwelt on the variety of the interests which he had to consider, and declared that he could sanction no attempt to interfere with the Austrian government in the possession of Galicia. The object of this conduct was to secure the cordial co-operation of Austria during the campaign; after which he would have had no scruple in changing his tone, as he calculated (p. 24.) on becoming absolute master of the Continent in the course of a few years. In the present case, however, his cunning overshot its mark; the Poles being discouraged by his equivocal language,

and consequently proceeding in the sequel with much less ardour.

The campaign was opened according to *Bonaparte*'s usual plan, without magazines; a method which may answer very well in a plentiful country, such as Lombardy, Flanders, or the archduchy of Austria, but which is wholly improper in thinly peopled and little cultivated regions like Lithuania and Russia. A force of above 60,000 cavalry had been suddenly poured into the former in the month of June; when the green corn was cut down with the scythe for forage, and the same exertion was required of the horses as if they had been nourished on wholesome food. The consequence was a great mortality, particularly after some stormy weather in the neighbourhood of Wilna; where the bodies of the horses lay scattered on the road, and infected the atmosphere. The want of supplies also drove the soldiers to the commission of excesses; and, when disappointed of the expected provision after a long march, they had no scruple in setting fire to the cottages of those whom they considered as unwilling to relieve their wants. Bread, their usual food, was not to be obtained; butchers' meat, in a bad state, proved a pernicious substitute; dysentery soon prevailed throughout the army; and, as we have observed in our report of *Labaumé*'s work, (Rev. for January 1816, published with this Appendix,) a great mortality ensued among troops who never came into action. It would have been in vain, however, to attempt to awaken apprehensions of the result of the campaign among the French officers. 'No men can surpass them,' says the author, 'in professional talents; in marching, attacking, choosing a position, or manœuvring before an enemy: but as soon as you take them off this ground, and enter on topics dependent on moral or political calculation, they lose the thread of their reasoning, and fall into the most ridiculous errors. They were all persuaded, at the outset of the campaign, that the Russians would risk general actions; and, so lately as the end of September, they insisted that the Moldavian army would not venture to throw itself on the rear of the French. "It must," said *Berthier*, "direct its march into the heart of the empire, where the government will stand in need of all its disposable force."'

M. DE P. has given sketches of several of the public characters with whom he was connected. *Bignon*, the author of the *Exposé Comparatif*, noticed in the first article of our present Number, had been his predecessor at Warsaw, and is treated by him, (p. 143, 144.) in our opinion, with unmerited severity. A more impartial estimate is given of *Dawôut*; who, though said to be strictly disinterested, and conspicuous for professional

professional gallantry, had created, by the harshness of his manners, general disgust both in Poland and Prussia. The personage most frequently brought before us, however, is *Maret*; from whom, as minister for foreign affairs, M. DE P. received his instructions and intelligence.—Orignally a reporter of the debates in the Convention, *Maret* succeeded *Champagny* in the ministry of foreign affairs, but was far from bringing to his office a proper system for the dispatch of business. The persons connected with his department were doomed to dance attendance, hour after hour, in his lobby; and, when introduced at last, they saw his tables covered with a mass of portfolios and other papers, all scattered round in confusion. He inverted the natural course of things, sleeping during the forenoon, and labouring during the night. 'I found it impracticable,' says M. DE PRADT, 'to obtain a deliberate audience of him before we left Paris; and, on his return through Warsaw, I had but too good an opportunity of seeing the strange want of method in his arrangements, and his loss of many precious hours in unmeaning conversation. His expositions want clearness; he never seems to come to a point. My official instructions contained no explicit plan; and they were a tissue of vague reasonings on the method of kindling the national spirit of the Poles, whom, as it was whimsically expressed, "*il falloit pousser jusqu'aux transports, en évitant le delire.*"'

In attempting a delineation of the Ex-Emperor, the author has been but partially successful. He remarks very justly (p. 8.) that Napoleon's violent and overbearing temper had the effect of keeping all independent counsellors at a distance, like the Sultan who threatened death to any one who should presume to say that he was in bad health:—he is correct, likewise, in asserting (p. 3.) that *Bonaparte*'s knowlege on a variety of subjects is superficial, and that he seeks to hide it under the cloak of confidence:—but M. DE P. has failed in giving a clear and distinct view of his late master's character. It is necessary, therefore, to leave out of sight his vague and exaggerated declamations, and to confine our attention as much as possible to facts. The world has long been aware that *Bonaparte*'s policy was a mixture of cunning and violence: but the supposition that the latter predominated is not correct, since he aimed much rather at circumventing than at beating down his adversary. All his projects had a double plot, the secret of which he supposed to rest entirely with himself. "I am sharp-sighted," he said to M. DE PRADT, at the time of his contest with the Pope and the Cardinals; "they are Italians, but I am one too."—*Maret* had made it a rule to copy his Imperial master in these commendable points; and

he insisted during the whole campaign that affairs wore a favourable aspect, in spite of all the negative admonitions of M. DE PRADT. The latter took the alarm in the end of September, on finding the Russian troops from Moldavia advance northwards through Poland: but *Maret* soon wrote to him, (p. 192.) "The Austrian force, whatever may be said to the contrary, is sufficient to contend with the enemy." Nevertheless, the Austrians found it necessary to retreat, when *Maret* again wrote: "This retreat cannot indeed be called a success, but it is not productive of danger;" and, two days afterward, he added, "The retreat of the Austrians may be a manœuvre to draw the Russians on, and to fall on them at a favourable moment." Such dispatches as these were sent to the author for the purpose of being read to the Polish ministers, and others whom it was important to keep in good spirits. *Maret* had also no scruple in announcing the march of corps which had never existed; and one day, (p. 195.) when M. DE PRADT was gravely relating the approach of a body of troops which might have made the tour of Europe since it had been first announced, the council burst into a general laugh, which put him on his guard against volunteering such communications for the future.

A Polish Colonel of the name of *Konopka*, who had commanded the lancers at Albuera, having received promotion, had been sent to his native district to obtain recruits. His station was to the eastward of Warsaw; and he remained there under the confidence inspired by the French reports, until, on the morning of the 19th of October, he and his levies (in number five hundred) were carried off by a sudden irruption of the Cossacks of *Tzchitchagoff's* army: the arms, provisions, and even the military chest, containing a considerable sum provided by *Bonaparte* for these levies, being borne away in triumph by the victors. Soon afterward came the intelligence that *Bonaparte* had begun to retreat from Moscow, which M. DE PRADT was commissioned to notify to the Poles, with an assurance that it was only the prelude to a signal vengeance on St. Petersburg in the next year. The ambassador now remained a fortnight without any accounts of the movements of the grand army, when he heard of its arrival at Smolensko with the loss of all its horses. The severity of the weather, and the march of the Russians from Moldavia on the line of the retreating force, excited in him considerable alarm: but *Maret* still continued to write from Wilna in a tone of confidence, and even represented as a victory the passage of the Beresina, which was accomplished by the most distressing sacrifices. The news of this passage reached Warsaw on the 2d of December; and a week afterward came accounts that the

the whole of the diplomatic body, who had passed the autumn-months with *Maret* at Wilna, were on the point of returning westward, and meant to stay some time at Warsaw:

'When occupied in writing an answer to this letter, the door of my apartment opened, and gave admittance to a tall man, who entered leaning on the arm of one of my secretaries. "Come along; follow me," said this phantom. His head was wrapt up in a covering of black taffeta; his countenance in a manner lost in the thickness of the fur by which it was surrounded; and his walk visibly clogged by a double pair of boots lined with fur; — he presented, in fact, the appearance of a ghost. I rose, drew near, and, catching some features of his profile, exclaimed in recognizing him, "Ah! it is you, *Caulaincourt*; where is the Emperor?" "At the *Hôtel d'Angleterre*; he waits for you there."—"Why has he not alighted at the palace?"—"He does not wish to be known."—"Have you every thing that you want?"—"Give us some Burgundy and Malaga."—"The cellar, the house, and all that it contains, are at your service; — and where are you going in this manner?"—"To Paris."—"And the army?"—"It is no more," said he, raising his eyes to heaven.—"And the victory of the Beresina, and the six thousand prisoners mentioned by the Duke of *Bassano*?"—"We accomplished our passage; we took a few hundred men, who got off: — we have something else to do than to look after prisoners." Then, taking him by the hand, I said, "*Monsieur le Duc*, it is high time for all the true servants of the Emperor to unite in their endeavours to make known to him the real state of things."—"What a reverse!" he replied, "I, for one, have not to reproach myself with not having forewarned him: but let us go; the Emperor waits for us." Hurrying through the court and street, I proceeded till I reached the *Hôtel d'Angleterre*; it was half-past one o'clock. A Polish gendarme was stationed at the door; the landlord of the hotel examined me; and, hesitating a moment, he allowed me to pass. I found in the court the body of a small carriage much shattered, mounted on a sledge constructed of four deal planks; two other open sledges served to convey General *Le Febvre Desnouettes*, another officer, the Mameluke *Rustan*, and a servant. This was all that remained of so much grandeur and magnificence! My imagination recalled to me the winding-sheet borne before the attendants of the great Saladin. — The door of a small parlour on the ground-floor opened slowly and mysteriously, a short explanation ensued; when I was immediately recognized by *Rustan*, and introduced. Preparations were making for dinner; and the Duke of *Vicenza* announced me to the Emperor, with whom I was left alone. He was in a small, cold, low-roofed apartment, with the shutters nearly closed to keep up his *incognito*; and a Polish girl was employed in ineffectual attempts to blow up a fire from some green sticks in the chimney. The Emperor was, as usual, walking about the room; and he had come on foot from the bridge of Praga to the inn. I found him dressed in a superb pelisse of green cloth, with elegant gold frogs. His head was covered with a sort of fur-cowl, and his leather boots were also lined with fur.

far. "Well, Mr. Ambassador," said he smiling, "how do things go on in this country?"—I then proceeded to draw, with all the caution necessary towards a sovereign, and especially towards one of his disposition, a picture of the actual state of the duchy of Warsaw. It was far from flattering. I mentioned the distress of the duchy, and of the Poles; he would not hear of this, and sharply asked "What then has ruined them?"—"The events of these six years past," I replied, "the bad crop of the last year, and the Continental System, which deprives them of all commerce."—At these words, his eye reddened; and he exclaimed, "What, then, is the wish of the Poles?"—"To be Prussians, if they cannot be Poles."—"And why not Russians?" rejoined he with an air of irritation.—"We must raise a levy of ten thousand Polish Cossacks; a lance and a horse are all that is wanted; with these we shall stop the advance of the Russians." I endeavoured to controvert this idea, which seemed to me highly objectionable:—he still insisted; I defended myself, and concluded by saying, "I for my part know not any advantage to be derived but from troops well organized, well paid, and well fed;—the rest serves for little." Soon after this he dismissed me, by desiring me to bring to him after dinner Count *Stanislaus Potocki*, and the minister of finance, whom I had represented as the two most respectable members of the council.—This conversation lasted nearly a quarter of an hour, during which the Emperor continued to walk about the room with that restlessness which I have always observed in him, and assuming at intervals the air of a profound reverie.

'We rejoined *Bonaparte* about three o'clock, when he had just risen from table. To the expressions of unfeigned satisfaction uttered by the gentlemen on seeing him safe and sound, after so many dangers, he exclaimed; "Dangers, none whatever; I am all life in a state of tumult; the greater the bustle the better: other kings fatten idly in the palace; I, on horseback and in the field.—*Du sublime au ridicule, il n'y a qu'un pas.*" It was evident that he fancied himself assailed by the hisses of the whole of Europe, which is to him the greatest of punishments. "I find you much alarmed here."—"The fact is that we know nothing but what public report brings us."—"Nonsense, the army is superb; I have 120,000 men; I have always beaten the Russians; they dare not stand before us:—they are no longer the soldiers of Friedland and Eylau. We shall maintain our ground in Wilna. I go to demand three hundred thousand men. Success will render the Russians confident. After having fought two or three battles on the Oder, in six months I shall be again on the Niemen. My power is greater on my throne than at the head of my army. I certainly leave the troops with regret, but I must keep an eye over Austria and Prussia. What has already happened is nothing:—it is an accidental misfortune, the effect of climate: the enemy has had no share in it. I have beaten them everywhere. They wished to cut me off at the Beresina, but I laughed at that fool of an admiral," meaning *Tzchitchagoff*, whose name he could never pronounce. This rhapsody was repeated twice. He added much about minds well fortified, and weak minds;—very nearly

nearly what is to be found in the 29th bulletin; he then continued: "I have seen such things often; at Marengo I was beaten till six o'clock in the evening; on the morrow, I was master of Italy. I could not hinder it from freezing in Russia; and I was told every morning that I had lost ten thousand horses during the night:—"*a bien! bon voyage.*" This being repeated five or six times, he proceeded: "Our Norman horses are not so hardy as those of the Russians; they do not resist above nine degrees of cold *. The same may be said of the men: for example, the Bavarians; not one of them is alive. Perhaps it will be observed that I continued too long at Moscow:—that may be true: but the weather was fine, and winter came on before the usual period. I was in expectation of a peace; on the 5th of October I sent *Lauriston* to treat about it; *I could* have passed the winter in the southern provinces of Russia. We shall stand our ground at Wilna. I have left the King of Naples there. Ah! ah! this is a great political scene; he who ventures nothing gains nothing. The Russians have come forwards manfully:—the Emperor Alexander is beloved; they have clouds of *Cossacks*. This nation is of some importance; their peasantry are attached to the government; their nobles make war on horseback. It was proposed to me to give freedom to the slaves: but I would not agree to it: they would have massacred every one:—the result would have been dreadful. I carried on a regular warfare against the Emperor Alexander: but who could have thought that they would have ever struck such a blow as that of the burning of Moscow?"—He then branched out into a variety of extravagant notions on the subject of the Polish levy; which, by his account, was to arrest that Russian army before which three hundred thousand French had given way. It was in vain for the ministers to insist on the state of their country; Napoleon's resolution remained unshaken. He next communicated to us the expected arrival of the diplomatic body from Wilna; adding, "they are mere spies—I wished to have none of them at my head-quarters—they are nothing but spies, employed in sending bulletins to their respective courts." The conversation was prolonged in this manner for nearly three hours. The fire had *gone* out, and the cold affected us all: but the Emperor, having warmed himself by talking, felt nothing. To a proposal of returning by the way of Silesia, he replied, "*Ah, ah, la Prusse.*" In short, after having repeated again and again, "*du sublime au ridicule, il n'y a qu'un pas;*" after having asked whether he was recognized by the people, and said it was of little consequence; after having re-assured the ministers of his protection, and persuaded them to take courage; he terminated the audience. The ministers and I expressing our best wishes for the preservation of his health, and for his welfare during the journey, he said, "I never was in better health in my life; *quand j'aurais le Diable, je ne m'en porterais que mieux.*"—Such was, word for word, this famous conversation. Its predominant feature was his dread of being pursued with hisses and execrations,

* Of Reaumur's thermometer, or about 12 of Fahrenheit.

instead

instead of receiving that burst of admiration with which Europe had resounded during fifteen years.'

The diplomatic body was not long in following *Bonaparte* to Warsaw: but *Maret* had kept up his deception to the last, and had given, apparently in high spirits, an entertainment to the ambassadors on the day before it became necessary to depart. We may judge that their surprize was great on receiving notice, the next morning, that in six hours they must set out, and travel through a frozen atmosphere above three hundred miles. This mode of managing matters appeared a fair subject of boast to *Maret*, who called it in his confidential moments a specimen *de la tenue politique:* but it cost the life of Joel Barlow, whose lungs were unable to resist the dreadful trial. Though *Maret*'s concealments had by this time brought on him the curses of all the diplomatic body, yet at Warsaw, in the middle of December, he persisted in his usual tone of confidence, alleging that the French troops would maintain their position at Wilna. It is melancholy to think how many gallant soldiers, Saxons, Bavarians, and others, were the victims of the cruel policy of *Bonaparte*, who instructed his agents to deny to the last the necessity of a retreat. The Austrians were in a great measure preserved by the prudence of *Schwartzenberg;* and M. DE P. takes no small credit to himself (p. 227.) for having contributed to give them timely warning of the inutility of farther operations. An Austrian officer having come to Warsaw in quest of information,

'I told him,' says the author, 'on the 25th of December, that in the state at which things had arrived it would be unmeaning cruelty to sacrifice a single man more; and that their only alternative was to follow the general movement of retreat. No words can express the gratitude of the Austrian at this frank communication: but I was doing no more than my duty, for I had been a witness during seven months of the sufferings and unwearied efforts of that army. I had made a point of taking its part against all who accused it of want of cordial co-operation; and I knew that it was left without information or orders, in the midst of the confusion produced by the catastrophe of the grand army.'

It happens unluckily for M. DE P.'s invectives against the roguery of *Maret* and others, that his own candour should be subject to considerable question. He represents (p. 59.) his employment, particularly the much envied one of *Grand Aumônier* to the army, as actually forced on him. Another very suspicious passage is the extravagant compliment paid (p. 45.) to the independence and discernment of the Parisians. An amusing specimen of his historical knowlege is given in p. 108., where he declares the destruction of Moscow to be the

the greatest calamity that has befallen mankind since the burning of Troy. In fact, under a name indicative of Flemish or German origin, this author has all the frivolity and shallowness of a Frenchman. — To these potent deductions from his claims on public attention, we must add a serious complaint of the vagueness and obscurity which prevail throughout all his attempts at general reasoning, such as in his preface, or in the first fifty pages of his book. The latter begins, indeed, in so strange a way as to remind us of the brain-sick effusions of General *Sarrazin*. The wonder is that such a man should have received a commission of importance under a government which is reputed to have been sufficiently acute in the choice of its functionaries: it was much on a par with intrusting an army to *Jourdan*; and the choice in either case is perhaps to be attributed to the insinuating address of the individual. Be this as it may, *Bonaparte* found out M. DE PRADT at last, and gave a very just estimate of him in the following note to *Maret*: "At Warsaw, I saw the Abbé *de Pradt*; he talked to me about every thing and every body; he seems to have none of the qualifications that are necessary in his place. I took no notice of this to him; you have merely to recall him."

ART. VIII. *De l'Education physique de l'Homme*, &c.; *i. e.* On the physical Education of Man. By M^r. FRIEDLANDER, M.D. &c. 8vo. Paris. 1815. Imported by De Boffe. Price 10s.

IT will be evident, on even slight reflection, that the subject of this work is of considerable interest; and yet it has seldom been pursued by medical writers, in so systematic a manner as its importance would seem to demand. Physical Education is here defined to be, 'the art of favouring the several developements in the various individuals, and of perfecting their organs or their dispositions in relation to the objects which surround us, and to the state of civilized society.' It differs from hygeine education, 'because this regards the preservation of the health as far as it may be affected by the noxious causes with which the body is surrounded; the latter considers man only in his actual condition, while the former looks forwards to his progress into a state which is always making advances.'

The treatise is divided into eleven chapters, in the first of which the author considers the question how far the disposition and faculties are hereditary or innate; and he is thus led to the inquiry whether we have it not in our power, by a suitable union of individuals in marriage, to produce at pleasure certain

tain qualities of the body and mind, and to avoid those that are undesirable. It is admitted that such considerations are not likely to have much effect in the choice of a husband or a wife: but it may be important to establish the general principle, if not for a practical, at least for a physiological purpose. We next enter on the discussion of a more delicate question, whether the common notion be well founded, that illegitimate children are generally superior in their physical and moral powers to such as are born in wedlock. In the former case, the passions are supposed to be more impetuous, and the voluntary powers to be more free and unrestrained, so as to have given rise to the idea that the fruit of an illicit connection is formed with a more perfect organization: but M. FRIEDLANDER suspects that fact will not bear out this hypothesis; and he thinks that the state of the mother's feelings, when so circumstanced, during the period of gestation, will generally be such as not to prove favourable to the perfection of her offspring.

A curious document is given, respecting the number of children that are born at Paris in the different months of the year, including the average of the registers for six years: whence it appears that the greatest number of children are born in the first four months of the year; the amount in March, for example, being nearly 56,000, while some of the other months do not exceed 45,000. It would be desirable that these observations were extended to other places, and that we should inquire whether no extraneous circumstances exist that might affect the result. — Another valuable document, communicated by M. *Chaussier*, relates to the number of cases of deformity which occurred at the hospital *de la Maternité*, in a certain number of years. Out of 23,293 infants, 132 only were born with some external obvious defect: 37 had the feet formed irregularly; 34 had some defect in the head or spine; 29 had the hare lip; and 15 had some malconformation in the abdomen or adjacent parts: — the remaining deformities were in much smaller proportion.

Chapter ii. treats on the Developement of the Fœtus, the difference between infants at the time of their birth, and the means of distinguishing their constitutions. The observations in this chapter are purely anatomical, and refer to the comparative bulk of newly born children, the size of the different parts of the body, the rate of their growth, and the manner in which the organs successively advance to the state of maturity. After having described the infant at the time of its birth, the author proposes to mark out different periods or epochs in its life, until it arrives at adult age; and to treat

of each of these in succession, marking the comparative changes which the body and mind experience, the diseases to which they are peculiarly liable at these different stages, and the means that are to be adopted for their removal. The first epoch comprehends the period from birth to the appearance of the first teeth, and is said to be remarkable 'for the predominance of the fluids over the solids, of the lymphatic system over the sanguineous, of the cellular texture over the muscular fibre, and for the excess of the susceptibility over the means of directing the powers. The head is large, the heart occupies a space eight times greater in proportion than in the adult, the pulse beats from 120 to 140 in the minute, and its velocity decreases as the bulk of the body augments by its growth. The senses and intellectual powers are generally in a state of repose, and the infant requires a large allowance of sleep.'

In the iiid chapter are detailed the principles of physical Education adapted to the first epoch of life. Here we have a review of all the circumstances which are the principal objects of attention in the management of newly born children; their food, dress, exercise, the manner of nursing them, &c. The observations are generally good, but sometimes too much refined and trifling; which, however, we conceive to depend in a great measure on the want of simplicity that prevails on the Continent respecting medicine, and all the collateral sciences. We shall quote a paragraph which seems to us to contain some judicious and rather novel ideas. Speaking of the management of infants in France, the author observes;

'It appears to me that mothers play too much with their children in the first epoch of life, and excite their vivacity too much. They do not sufficiently consider that, at this period, and even in the next, we are to pay particular regard to the physical developement. This observation would be more apparent, were we to compare the different modes of education in a more advanced epoch. In England, where physical education has arrived at an unusual degree of perfection, mothers seem to me to think only of the physical beauty of the child: they give it a great deal of liberty without fatiguing it. In Germany, mothers recommend that their children should be kept quiet, and insist too much on that moderation to which their temperature disposes them. In France, the cares of a mother seem to be chiefly directed to another point, to prevent the child from becoming stupid, and from being deficient in quickness of understanding: but these tender mothers have nothing to fear in this respect, in a country in which the intellectual faculties and social amiability are so liberally diffused. For a long time, infants require only neatness, warm and pure air, milk, and repose; and accordingly, when they are well, they do nothing but eat and sleep.'

Chapter iv. is on the process of Dentition, and v. on Weaning. We may make the same remarks on these as on some of

of the former parts of the work; the observations being generally correct, but not unfrequently trifling. The fever and uneasiness which arise from cutting the teeth are to be relieved 'by warm fomentations and light frictions, and by glysters of linseed and oil, to which may be added opiates or other anodynes; evacuations may be procured by a little syrop of chicory and rhubarb, and by a light infusion of manna. We may, on the contrary, stop the too violent action of the bowels by solutions of gum Arabic, decoctions of rice, &c.: we may produce perspirations by warm baths and infusions of light aromatic plants, such as the lime; and the vomiting of glairy matter by gentle emetics.' To this kind of practice the cure is trusted; while lancing the gums, the most obvious, direct, and effectual of all remedies, is mentioned as not to be adopted without great caution; and the author says with respect to it, 'in general it is proper not to interfere with the operations of nature.' — A large part of the chapter on Weaning is in a similar strain; detailing a minute account of the effect of a variety of substances which may be employed as food for the child, but the greatest part of which no one in this country would ever think of giving to an infant under any circumstances. — Here the author introduces a kind of hypothesis respecting the growth of the body, and the manner of directing its energy, which may be worth notice, as having probably some foundation in truth. It is supposed that there is an excess or superabundance of vitality and nutritive power, which may be thrown on different parts of the system, and made to produce different effects; so that, to a certain degree, we can guide it towards one point and draw it off from another. In the proper management of this energy, therefore, in the due balancing of it and apportioning it to the various parts of the system, consists one very important part of physical education.

The vith chapter relates to the influence of Climate, Soil, the Seasons, and other external circumstances, on the infant; and to the means of obviating their several bad effects by suitable habitations, cleanliness, proper garments, and other precautionary measures. Here we have, as before, much minute observation, some things useful, and some trivial. The author first examines the effect produced by different countries, as far as climate is concerned; and then the difference between the constitution of the inhabitants of mountains and vallies, and those of crowded cities and open plains. On this subject he offers some sensible remarks:

'We acknowlege that a well situated country presents the most favourable chance for the physical developement of the earliest infancy: but we must confess that our cities are improving in salubrity; and

that there are developements, dispositions, and faculties, which cannot flourish but in the bosom of a numerous society. Is it determined that the child must exercise some art? Then we shall be obliged to sacrifice, for his moral education, other advantages which are sometimes very important. If he happens to have been born in a large city, if his destiny carry him to one of those employments which require a great congregation of individuals, we shall be under the necessity of learning and judging of the means supplied by civilization, to diminish the inconveniencies which it brings along with it. Natural inclination obliges us to unite; and it is then improper to regard, as an unnatural state, that of those thousands of men who have been compelled to find means of forming themselves into society, as we see it exist at the present time.'

The viith, viiith, and ixth chapters treat on Exercise, on the Senses, and on Speech. In the first, we have an account of the formation of the bones, the joints, and the muscles; with remarks on the natural action of these parts, on the mechanical diseases to which they are occasionally liable, and on the means of remedying them. With respect to the more immediate subject of the chapter, it is treated with the usual minuteness; all the different kinds of exercises, for use and amusement, are considered; and their effect is appreciated both on the body in general and on its different organs in particular. The chapter on the Senses is one of the most ingenious of the whole volume; the gradual developement of the different nervous powers in the young infant are well described; their connection with each other is traced; and the means are pointed out for strengthening them and correcting their defects.

Chapter x., on Puberty, is well worth the attention of those who are engaged in the education and management of young persons at that period of life to which it relates. — The xith and concluding chapter discusses the relation between the dispositions of the soul and intellectual faculties, and the body; and the influence of moral over physical education. It is necessarily, in a great measure, metaphysical: but it is obviously a very important addition to the general subject of the volume. A large part of it is devoted to the consideration of the passions, and their action on the corporeal functions. The intellectual and sensual affections, which conspire to form the disposition, ought to be balanced in the nicest manner, in order to produce that state of equilibrium which gives us the idea of a perfect character; and, according to the excess of the one or the other of these classes of emotions, which are styled desires and sentiments, it is supposed that the temperaments are produced. The four temperaments of Hippocrates are conceived to present a correct view of human nature, in its actual condition, although they are attributed to a different set of causes.

It

It is argued that the sanguine and the phlegmatic temperaments have an equilibrium between the desires and the sentiments: but they both exist in the first in an increased degree of activity; and in the second, on the contrary, they exhibit marks of deficiency. The choleric is supposed to possess a predominence of desires; — the melancholic, of sentiments. The author observes, in conclusion, that 'the exclusive cultivation of corporeal force would only produce the right of the strongest, such as we behold it in the origin of social order. The faculties of the soul, if they alone are cultivated, would only produce ardour of the passions; which, like the sun at the equator, would consume the most beautiful productions: while cool reason, if it should obtain too much command over the movements of the soul and the exercises of the body, would extinguish the germ of energy, and would stifle every feeling of the heart, so as to become like a wintry sun; or rather like light, which illuminates without warming.'

Speaking generally, we may recommend this volume to those who are interested in the subject of it, as a work of some talent, and as a respectable body of information: but it has the fault of being too diffuse, and of resembling an academic thesis, in which the writer heaps up a large mass of information from different quarters, without exercising much selection, or adding materially from the stores of his own mind.

ART. IX. *Essai sur la Théorie des Nombres; i. e.* An Essay on the Theory of Numbers. By A. M. LEGENDRE. New Edition. 4to. Paris.

THE theory of numbers is a modern branch of analysis, which has not at present much engaged the attention of English mathematicians. We know, indeed, but of three distinct treatises respecting it, viz. the Essay of M. LEGENDRE, which forms the subject of this article and which was first published at Paris in 1801, — *Gauss's* "*Disquisitiones Arithmeticæ*," published at Brunswick about the same time, and since (viz. in 1807) translated into French under the title of "*Récherches Arithmètiques*," by M. *Poullet Delisle* *, — and Barlow's "Elementary Investigation of the Theory of Numbers," London, 1811. It should be observed, however, that, although these are the only separate treatises on this interesting branch of analysis, it still has engaged the attention of nearly all the most celebrated algebraists of the last two centuries. *Bachet* and *Fermat*, particularly the latter, first brought it under consideration by

* See Rev. Vol. iv. N. S. p. 527.

the enunciation of several very remarkable numerical propositions, in their respective editions of the algebra of *Diophantus:* but *Euler*, *Waring*, and *Lagrange*, have most contributed towards giving the subject its present scientific character; and to them we are therefore indebted for having thus opened this new and extensive field to the investigation of modern algebraists. Still, as the papers which contain the disquisitions of these celebrated authors are spread through various volumes of the transactions of different learned societies, M. LEGENDRE thought that he should render an acceptable service to the sciences by selecting the most interesting of them, and publishing them in a distinct work. He ultimately determined, however, to form a complete treatise on the Theory of Numbers; in which he of course availed himself of all the resources above mentioned, adding such parts as were necessary to combine them into one uniform system, which he has farther extended by many new and original investigations. His first edition was divided into an introduction, and four parts: but, in the present, the author has added a fifth part; and we intend to give a brief sketch of all of them.

The introduction is principally occupied by definitions, and a few propositions on the general properties of prime and composite numbers: in which it is demonstrated that no algebraical formula can be found to exhibit prime numbers only, and that the quantity of prime numbers is infinite. It is singular that the former demonstration, which is remarkably simple, should have escaped those who so long and uselessly endeavoured to find such a formula; although it must be admitted that, before the demonstration was known, we might be led by certain cases to imagine it to be possible to find such an expression. Among others, M. LEGENDRE mentions the simple expression $x^2 + x + 41$; where, by making successively $x = 0, 1, 2$, &c. the first forty results are prime numbers. A great variety of other numerical propositions are also demonstrated in this chapter. With regard to composite numbers, he shews how we may estimate the number as also the sum of their divisors and factors; and that a number N being reduced to the form $a^\alpha b^\beta c^\gamma$, &c. a, b, c, being prime, the number of its divisors will be expressed by the formula $(m+1)\times(n+1)\times(p+1)$, &c. and the sum of all its divisors by $\frac{a^{m+1}-1}{a-1} \times \frac{b^{n+1}-1}{b-1} \times \frac{c^{p+1}-1}{c-1} \times$, &c. Also, the formula $N \times \frac{a-1}{a} \times \frac{b-1}{b} \times \frac{c-1}{c} \times$, &c. will represent the number of integers that are less than N, and also prime to it. The author concludes this introduction with a short table

table of prime numbers, which is useful as a reference in many succeeding propositions.

Part i. is wholly occupied in developing the doctrine of continued fraction, with its application to the solution of indeterminate problems of the first and second degree; and to finding the roots of equations of any degree whatever.

The application of continued fraction to the solution of indeterminate equations of the first degree, as $ax \pm by = c$, is now well understood: but, with regard to those of the second, to which the doctrine may be extended with equal facility, it has not received the attention to which it is intitled by its simplicity and the generality of its use. The problem $x^2 - ay^2 = 1$ was formerly reckoned one of the most difficult of the indeterminate analysis, and was proposed by *Fermat*, in a limited form, as a challenge to all the English mathematicians of his time. Dr. Pell, in consequence, gave a solution, although it did not embrace the general equation: but *Lagrange*, by shewing how to extract the square root of any non-quadrate number by continued fractions, furnished a direct and general solution of the problem, which may be justly considered as one of the most important improvements that the indeterminate analysis has received at the hands of that celebrated author. The mere solution of the above equation may probably be regarded by many readers as a matter rather of curiosity than utility: but those who are acquainted with its extensive application in a variety of interesting inquiries will not view it in the same light.

Having in the first part illustrated all the most useful branches of the indeterminate analysis, M. LEGENDRE proceeds to manifest, in Part ii., its application to the demonstration of several numerical propositions; and, among others, this fundamental one, first proposed but not demonstrated by *Fermat*; viz. "If c be any prime number, and N any number not divisible by c, then will the quantity $N^{\frac{c-1}{2}} - 1$ be divisible by c;" which proposition, like the one above mentioned, is of extensive application in a great variety of important investigations. M. *Gauss*'s demonstration, however, which is adopted by Mr. Barlow, has greatly the advantage of the above in point of simplicity.

Many other curious propositions are also demonstrated in the different chapters of this part, from which we shall select a few of the most remarkable.

'If n be a prime number, the product $1.2.3.4.5. \ldots (n-1)$ augmented by unity is divisible by n.' This proposition was first invented by Sir John Wilson, a friend of Dr.

Waring, and is given in the *Meditationes Algebraicæ* of the latter author, but without a demonstration; which had been previously supplied by *Lagrange* in the Memoirs of the Academy of Berlin for 1772.

In chapter iii. we have the demonstration of the following propositions:

'The sum of two squares prime to each other, or any number of the form t^2+u^2, can only have divisors that are of the same form; *i. e.* they can only be divided by numbers that are also the sums of two squares.

'The case is the same with the formulæ t^2+2u^2 and t^2-2u^2, each of which admits only of divisors of the same form with itself.

'Also, the formulæ t^2+3u^2 and t^2-5u^2 have still the same property, if we only except such divisors as are the double of odd numbers.'

The subsequent propositions, which depend on the above, are very remarkable:

'Every prime number of the form $4n+1$ is the sum of two squares.

'Every prime number of the form $8n+1$ is at the same time of the three forms y^2+z^2, y^2+2z^2, y^2-2z^2.

'Every prime number of the form $8n+3$ is of the form y^2+2z^2; and every prime number of the form $8n+7$ is also of the form y^2-2z^2.'

Whence, again, it follows that,

'1. All prime numbers of the linear forms $8n+1$, and $8n+5$, are, exclusively of all others, of the quadratic form y^2+z^2.

'2. All prime numbers of the linear forms $8n+1$, and $8n+3$, are, exclusively of all others, of the quadratic form y^2+2z^2.

'3. All prime numbers of the linear forms $8n+1$, and $8n+7$, are, exclusively of all others, of the quadratic form y^2-2z^2.'

In the next chapter, it is demonstrated that the product of two numbers, each of which is the sum of four squares, is itself the sum of four squares; and hence, by a simple deduction, that every number whatever is the sum of two, three, or four squares, which is a particular part of the general propositions of *Fermat*, viz. "*Nempe omnem numerum vel esse triangulum vel ex duobus aut tribus triangulis compositum; esse quadratum vel ex duobus aut tribus aut quatuor quadratis compositum; esse pentagonum vel ex duobus, tribus, quatuor, aut quinque pentagonis compositum; et sic deinceps in infinitum in hexagonis, heptagonis, et polygonis, quibus libet.*"— Of these several cases, only the second had been demonstrated by *Lagrange*: but M. LEGENDRE has now succeeded in demonstrating the first. All the others still

still remain in the state in which the proposition was left by *Fermat* at page 180. of his edition of *Diophantus*.

The succeeding chapters of this part are employed in a farther investigation of the properties of divisors, the formation of tables of formulæ, and their application to the determination of the factors of numbers. The third part is also of the same kind; except that it relates to the forms of divisors with reference to three squares, whereas the second considered them only as composed of two squares, or at least of two indeterminate quantities.

Part iv. commences with the demonstration of certain negative numerical propositions, most of which were proposed by *Fermat* in his notes on *Diophantus*: but which, like those that we have already mentioned, were left by him without demonstration. The reason for this omission appears to have been that he was preparing an original work on the subject: but, whether he afterward declined the prosecution of it, or whether it was left by him at his death and destroyed, we do not know. The loss of it, however, from whatever cause it may have arisen, cannot fail to be a subject of regret to those who possess any relish for this refined branch of analysis, and who are able to appreciate the transcendent talents of that celebrated author.

The most remarkable of the propositions contained in chapter 1. are these: viz.

'The area of a right-angled triangle in whole numbers cannot be equal to a rational square.

'The two formulæ x^2+y^2 and x^2-y^2 cannot be both squares with the same values of x and y.

'Neither the sum nor the difference of two biquadratics can be equal to a square.

'Neither the sum nor the difference of two cubes can be equal to a cube.'

The latter of these properties is again only a particular case of *Fermat*'s general proposition, which may be thus briefly expressed: "Neither the sum nor the difference of any two equal powers above the second can be equal to a power of the same dimension; or the equation $x^n \pm y^n = z^n$ is always impossible in integers, when n is greater than 2." Of this general theorem, only the cases in which $n=3$ and $n=4$ have received a correct demonstration. Mr. Barlow, in his "Theory of Numbers," has attempted the general proposition, and has demonstrated that, if there be any case in which the equation $x^n-y^n=z^n$ is possible, the differences $x-y$, $x-z$, and the sum $y+z$, must be each complete *nth* powers; or two of them must

must be complete *nth* powers, and the other an *nth* power divided by the index n: but he has certainly failed, in the following proposition, to demonstrate the impossibility of the original equation.

The second chapter of this part relates to the integral solution of the equation $x^n - b = ay$, which is very elegant, and executed in the author's best style; and the concluding chapter, containing the solution of certain Diophantine problems, also displays great ingenuity, and is deserving of an attentive perusal.

Part v., which is now added to the original work in the second edition, is wholly occupied in illustrating *Gauss*'s celebrated theorem relative to binomial equations of the form $x^n - 1 = 0$, and $x^n + 1 = 0$. Cotes first gave the solution of these equations by means of trigonometrical lines, and afterward applied them to great advantage in a variety of cases in his *Harmonia Mensurarum*: but M. *Gauss* was the first who submitted them to the rules of simple algebra, at the conclusion of his *Disquisitiones Arithmeticæ*; by means of which, many trigonometrical quantities, that were before regarded as totally inexpressible in any finite form, are now exhibited by quadratic and cubic surds. Consequently, all those polygons which depend on the former, are geometrically inscribable in a circle: constructions which had long been considered as absolutely impossible, before the publication of the latter work.

Previously to the appearance of *Gauss*'s theorem, the only polygons admitting of a geometrical construction were the triangle, the square, and the pentagon; with such others as depended on these, viz. the hexagon, the octagon, the decagon, &c. but that author shews how any polygon of a prime number of sides, of the form $2^m + 1$, may be solved by quadratic equations; and consequently all such polygons will admit of a geometrical construction. Generally, if n be any prime number denoting the number of sides of any polygon, and $n - 1$ be put under the form $a^p b^q c^r$, &c. the solution will be effected by means of p equations of the dimension a; q equations of the dimension b; r equations of the dimension c, &c.; and, consequently, when $n = 2^m + 1$, or $n - 1 = 2^m$, the solution of the equation will depend on m equations of the second degree, and will therefore admit of a geometrical construction.

We cannot here enter on this subject at such a length as to render the mode of solution sufficiently obvious to those who are unacquainted with the principles of the Cotesian theorem: but those who know the connection between the theorem

$x^m - 1 = 0$, and the inscription of a polygon of n dimensions in a circle, will not be at a loss to understand the following indication of *Gauss*'s solution. Since 17 is a prime number of the form $2^m + 1$ or $17 = 2^4 + 1$, let it be proposed to find the 16 imaginary roots of the equation $x^{17} - 1 = 0$. This equation, divided by $x - 1$, becomes $x^{16} + x^{15} + x^{14} + x^{13} +$, &c. $x^2 + x + 1 = 0$:

$$\text{make } x + x^9 + x^{13} + x^{15} + x^{16} + x^8 + x^4 + x^2 = p$$
$$x^3 + x^{10} + x^5 + x^{11} + x^{14} + x^7 + x^{12} + x^6 = p' :$$

then it is obvious that $p + p' = -1$; and, by multiplying the two lines together, the product will be found to comprize the whole series of roots four times over. Consequently, $pp' = -4$. By means, therefore, of the two equations $p + p' = -1$ and $pp' = -4$, we obtain $p = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{17}$, and $p' = -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{17}$. Again, divide the first of the above series, or p, into these two:

$$x + x^{13} + x^{16} + x^4 = q$$
$$x^9 + x^{15} + x^8 + x^2 = q'.$$

Then, we shall have by addition $q + q' = p$, and by multiplication $qq' = -1$, whence $q = \frac{1}{2}p + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{(4 + p^2)}$, which is therefore numerically determined. Then, again, let $x + x^{16} = t$, and $x^{13} + x^4 = t'$; and we obtain by multiplication and addition, as before, $t = \frac{1}{2}q + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{(q^2 - 4q'')}$; the value of q'' having been found from the second of the original divisors, or from p', as q was from p.

Having thus obtained $x + x^{16} = t$, and knowing that $x^1 + x^{16} = x^{17} = 1$, we find immediately the value of x; and in the same way, or simply by involution, we may derive the imaginary expressions for all the other roots of the proposed equation.—In a similar manner, the imaginary roots of any other binomial equation may be obtained; at least as far as the present state of analysis will allow of our solving the reduced equations. The first solution of this problem is undoubtedly due to M. *Gauss:* but his mode of exhibiting it is by no means conspicuous. M. LEGENDRE, without deviating from the general principles of *Gauss*, has rendered it much more intelligible: but the simplest investigation is given in the last chapter of Barlow's "Theory of Numbers."

We cannot extend this article to a greater length, and shall therefore conclude it by recommending the subject of it to all those of our readers who wish to possess a thorough knowlege of the principles of modern algebra.

ART.

ART. X. *Mémoire sur le Mouvement de Rotation*, &c.; *i. e.* A Memoir on the Rotation of a solid free Body about the Centre of its Mass. By J. F. FRANÇAIS, Professor in the Imperial School of Artillery and Engineering. 4to. pp. 56. Paris. 1813.

As the rotation of a solid body in free space is a very important problem both in mechanics and in physical astronomy, it has accordingly exercised the talents of many of the ablest mathematicians of Europe, particularly *D'Alembert*, *Euler*, *Lagrange*, *Laplace*, and *Poisson*. In the present memoir, the subject is treated, we cannot say in the most simple manner, but certainly in the most general that the problem admits; that is, by considering the co-ordinates $(x, y, z,)$ of any point of the body, after the time t, as functions of the initial co-ordinates of the same point, of the forces $(X, Y, Z,)$ applied to the body, and of the time t; and thence determining the value of those co-ordinates.

M. FRANÇAIS divides his essay into six articles; in the first is given the preliminary formulæ for the transformation of the co-ordinates which are necessary for the solution of the problem; and in the second, the manner of abridging them, the theory of the momenta of inertia, and the principal axes. The third contains the general analytical solution of the problem of rotation; the fourth, the deduction from the preceding of the principal properties relative to the axes of spontaneous rotation, the momenta of rotation, and the principal axes; the fifth includes discussions relative to the general solution; and in the sixth is given the complete solution in finite terms, in the cases in which the momenta of inertia with regard to the two principal axes are equal. The author has also added a supplement on the *maxima* and *minima* of the angular velocities about the axis of spontaneous rotation.

Since it is impossible to exhibit within our limits any of the peculiarities of this general solution of the problem of rotation, we must be contented with abstracting the conclusion which the author has drawn from the supplementary chapter above mentioned:

'1. Whatever may be the initial circumstances of motion, the total angular velocity has always a *maximum* or *minimum* value; and this *maximum* or *minimum* has always place when the spontaneous axis passes through the plane of the two principal axes.

'2. The *maximum* has place when the spontaneous axis passes through the plane of the principal axes *maximum* and *minimum*; and then the partial angular velocities about these two axes are also *maxima*, while that about the principal mean axis is zero.

'3. The *minimum* has place when the spontaneous axis passes through the plane of the principal mean axis and that about which the spontaneous axes oscillate; and then the partial angular velocity about

about the principal mean axis is at its *maximum*, and those about the two other axes at their *minimum:* the one of them being zero, that is to say, that which is made about the principal axis which is not the axis of the cone described by the spontaneous axis.

'4. In the particular case in which the spontaneous axis moves in a plane passing by the principal mean axis, the *minimum* has place when the spontaneous axis coincides with this principal axis; and then the partial angular velocity about this principal axis is at its *maximum*, while those about the other two principal axes are nothing.'

These conclusions are certainly important with regard to the general problem; and we meet with others equally interesting, but they could not be understood without a reference to the formulæ from which they are deduced.

ART. XI. *Opinion d'un Créancier*, &c.; *i. e.* The Opinion of a Public Creditor on the Budget, and on the Observations and Reflections to which it has given rise; addressed to the national Creditors. 4to. pp. 41. Paris.

THE French Budget was presented to the Chamber of Deputies, or in other words to their House of Commons, on the 22d of July 1814, by Baron *Louis*, the finance-minister. His speech accompanying it was conceived in very plain unassuming language; and, after having explained the enormous mass of debt incurred by *Bonaparte* in the three months of his reign previously to the 1st of April, it proceeded to discuss several methods of doing justice to the national creditors.

Shortly after its appearance, this budget was attacked in Paris by a numerous class of persons, who conceive that their own importance is increased by criticizing the acts of government, and by significantly insinuating how much better they could have managed the concerns of the public. In addition to those verbal commentators, two antagonists appeared in writing, one of them anonymous, but supposed to be *Bonaparte's* late finance-minister, *Gaudin*; the other avowed, viz. M. *Ganilh*, known by his publication on political economy, (see M. R. vol. lxxi. N.S. p. 419.) and other works. The present is, we understand, a demi-official answer to both, given to the world under the convenient name of a state-creditor, but composed with a perspicuity and animation which are indicative of a pen that is accustomed to literary composition. The writer begins by justifying the lenity shewn by the present government towards the ministers and others who had been employed by *Bonaparte*, and asks which of them ever had sufficient freedom of thought or action in any project to be intitled to the honour or exposed to the blame attendant on its results; arguing that, where no free will existed, no responsibility should attach; and that the present government has accordingly considered

one

one man only as responsible for all the errors of the late tyranny. If they have any where departed from this rule, it has been, says the writer, to shew kindness to individuals who exerted themselves to soothe, by their representations, the harsh character of their master; and to soften in their operation his peremptory and insensate commands.

The accounts of the different departments of finance exhibited under the time of *Bonaparte*, whether relating to the army, the navy, or the home-administration, were frequently drawn in such a manner as to put it out of the power of the public to form any just conception of them. They expressed not the amount of money due and payable by these respective departments, but that part of it merely for which the government had chosen to make a provision; so that a contractor, who had furnished stores to the amount of 30,000l., was brought forwards as a creditor only for the 15,000l. which the government consented to pay him at the time. No notice was taken of the large sums raised in the shape of contributions from Germany, Italy, or Spain; the plan being to make a correspondent reduction in the estimate of army-charges, with the view of concealing from the people the enormous expence of that department.

After these general observations, the present author enters into a variety of specific calculations in answer to the arguments of the two opposition-writers; calculations which are of little interest in any case, and least of all when they refer to the affairs of a foreign country. — Passing subsequently from the animadversions of the anonymous pamphleteer to those of M. *Ganilh*, he admits the extensive erudition of the latter, but considers him as a very indifferent practical financier, and even accuses him flatly of dealing in hazardous plans and chimerical projects. M. *Ganilh*'s suggestion was to fund, without hesitation, the whole of the floating debt; as if an addition of so many millions to the existing mass would not, in the present state of the French revenue, be productive of an immediate fall in the stocks, and consequently of serious injury to the body of stock-holders at large. To this dangerous proposition, he added the still bolder suggestion of giving up all direct taxes, and making a vigorous addition to the indirect taxes, on the plan which regulates, in a great degree, the financial system of England. To the principle of this plan the official writer is disposed to assent: but its execution he deems impracticable in the present state of public feeling in France, where direct taxes have long been levied, and indirect taxes are almost a novelty.

To these observations on financial topics, is added a variety of others equally deserving of attention for their own importance,

portance, and for the quarter from which they proceed. The French, or rather the Parisians, have shewn themselves sufficiently ready to animadvert on public measures, whenever the character of the government was such as to allow those criticisms to take place without personal hazard. After the overthrow of the Jacobins in 1794, and more particularly in 1796 and 1797, the Paris papers breathed, like the Legislative Assembly, a strong spirit of independence; and a similar disposition has been sufficiently manifest both among the minority in the Chamber of Deputies, and in those private circles in which national affairs are the subject of discussion. How far the French are, as yet, capable of deriving advantage from this latitude of debate, is a question of no very easy decision; the use hitherto made of it, both in and out of the Legislative Assembly, having been rather to display the powers of the speakers than to aim at the introduction of actual improvement. The writer of the tract under review approves of an Opposition, but requires that it should be enlightened and temperate. It has no occasion, he says, for courage, because it is in no danger; nor should an impatience to acquire popularity, or the *mania* of introducing new projects, lead it to throw wanton impediments in the way of government.

Another topic, on which this author dwells at considerable length, is the question how far it is expedient to limit the rate of interest. He analyzes the component parts of interest in a way that indicates his familiarity with the doctrines of political economy, and explains (p. 33.) that it is composed chiefly of two parts; viz. the natural profit of capital, and a premium of insurance for the hazard incurred by making a loan. The former varies in different countries, according to the relative abundance of capital, and was lower in Holland in the prosperous days of that republic than it has ever been in any other state: — the latter is necessarily subject to considerable fluctuation in consequence of the difference of various kinds of securities. To an unacquaintance with the causes which are productive of these variations, the author ascribes the almost universal error of governments in attempting to limit the rate of interest by law. Such limitations are maintained by statutes and penalties in all countries; and yet, in almost all, the consequence of these statutes has been to aggravate the evil by increasing the rate of interest, or in other words by increasing the pressure on the borrower. 'Usury,' says the present writer, in that figurative style which is sanctioned by French taste, but which is scarcely admitted in such discussions in this country, 'Usury is a monster of sufficient strength to resist the law, and of sufficient dexterity to escape it. It laughs at the efforts of rulers, and warns them to desist from a course

a course which can only accelerate the embarrassment of those whom they wish to protect.' Capital, it is here argued, is as fair an object of bargaining as any article of merchandise, and the owner is equally intitled to make the most of it. No wise government ever thought of imposing a limit on the rent of land, or the profit of merchants; yet land is nothing else than capital invested in a particular way; exactly as merchandise constitutes the investment of the trader, and money the investment of those who are usually termed capitalists. Equity, then, points out very clearly that money ought no more to be subjected to a *maximum* as to its return, than houses, estates, or any other mode in which capital may be invested.

We here discover, for the first time, in an official publication, an admission of the inexpediency of limiting the rate of interest; and some of our readers will be surprized to learn that this course is avowedly adopted by the French government, which is paying at the present moment eight per cent. on the whole of its unfunded debt. We have likewise been given to understand that, for a considerable time past, no positive statute has existed with regard to the limitation of interest. Whether the French minister will be enabled to continue to act on this plan, or be obliged to revert to an enactment of the old law, we do not undertake to pronounce: but it would be singular if France, a country so far behind England and Holland in commercial progress, were to set the first example of a departure from antient usage in a point of so much importance. In France, as among us, the majority of the public is adverse, from the best intentions, to the latitude now recommended; apprehending that a relaxation of the law might give additional facilities to the odious practice of usury. To such persons, we would recommend a perusal of Mr. Bentham's tract, unluckily intitled "A Defence of Usury," and of Mr. Sugden's late pamphlet on the abuses attendant on the practice of borrowing money on annuity. Any barrister of extensive practice is likely to give ample testimony to the same effect, and to satisfy the benevolent inquirer that the existing law is by no means effectual for the repression of an overcharge of interest.

Should it be deemed expedient to adopt the course so strongly recommended by the writer of the present tract, the experiment may be made by partially extending the limitation of the rate of interest, instead of throwing it open at once: a course which could not fail to create considerable disquietude on the part of that numerous portion of the public, which has been accustomed to regard our present law in the light of a barrier against extortion.

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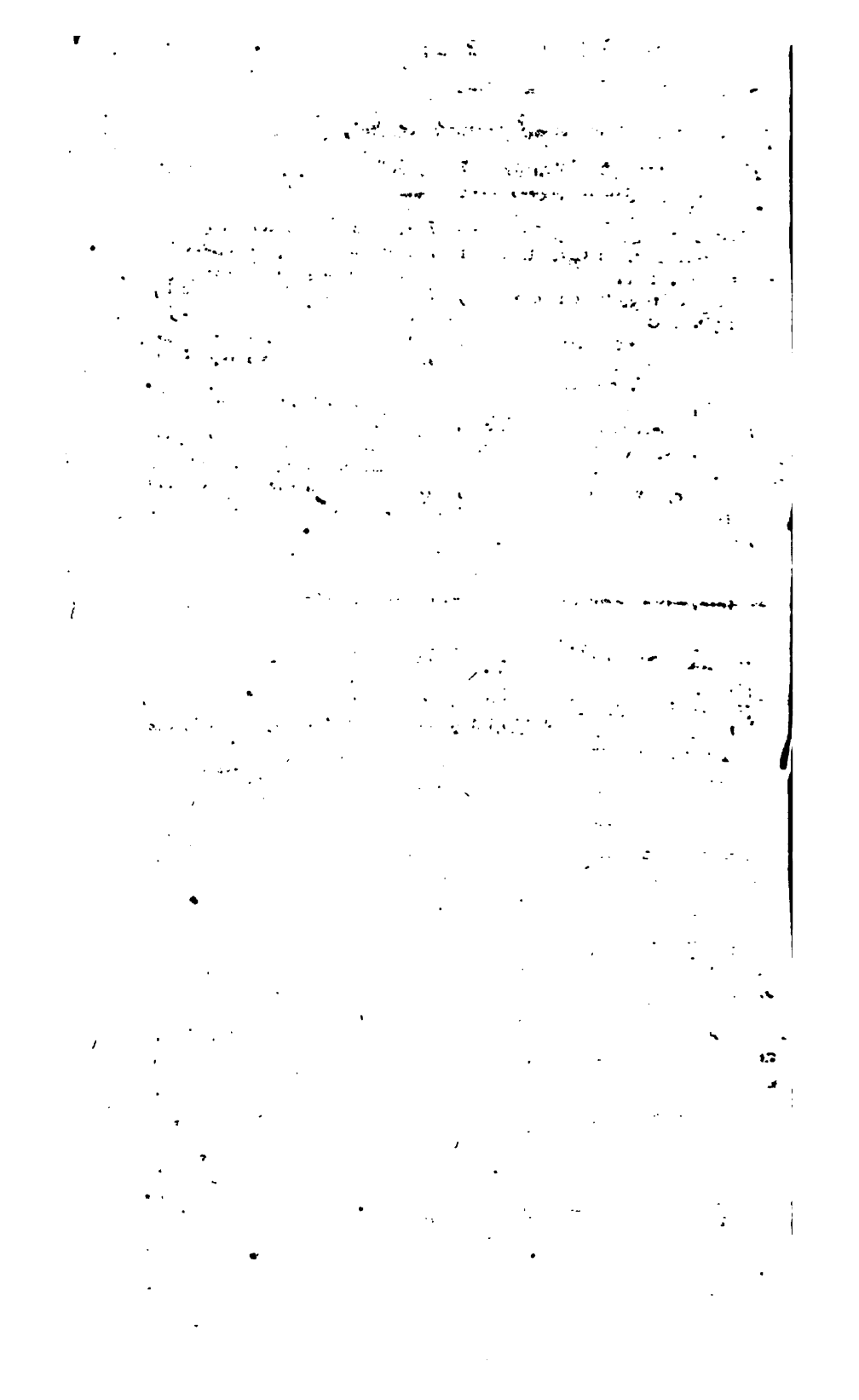
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